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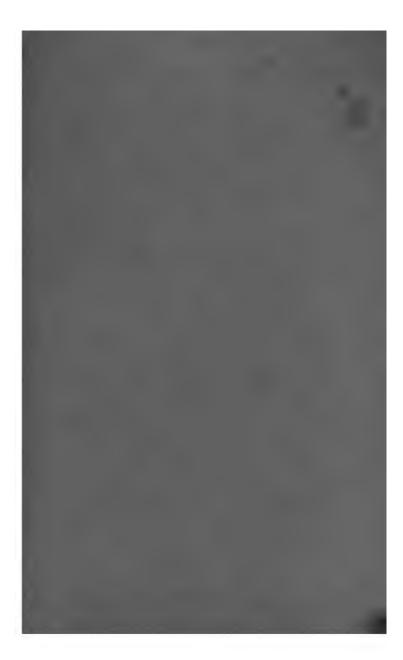
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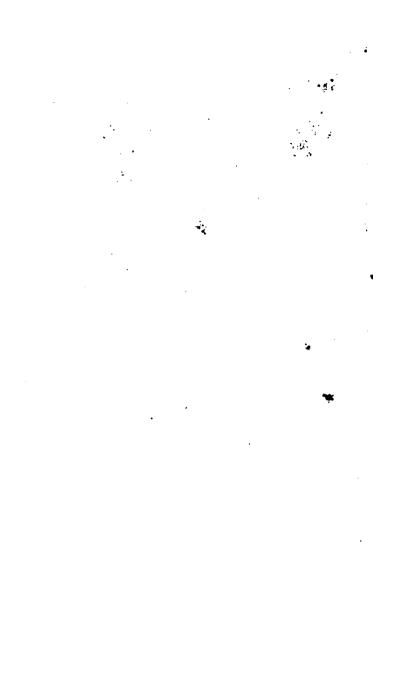
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# COMPLETE

# LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR LEARNERS,

BY

J. W. DONALDSON, D.D.

## By the same Author:

# **EXERCISES**

ADAPTED TO

THE COMPLETE LATIN GRAMMAR.

Preparing for Publication.

#### A COMPLETE

# LATIN GRAMMAR,

FOR

THE USE OF LEARNERS,

BY

# JOHN WILLIAM DONALDSON, D.D.,

HHAD MASTER OF BURY SCHOOL;
AND FORMERLY FELLOW OF TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

Κρεῖττου γάρ που σμικρου εὖ ἢ πολύ μὴ ἰκανῶς περαναι.

PLATO.

LONDON:
JOHN W. PARKER AND SON, WEST STRAND.
M.DCCC.LII.

305. C.17.



#### TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE AND RIGHT REVEREND

# CHARLES JAMES BLOMFIELD, D.D.,

THIS WORK, .

DESIGNED TO ASSIST

THE LATIN LEARNING OF BURY SCHOOL,
WHICH HE HAS BEEN PLEASED TO STIMULATE BY

THE FOUNDATION OF A MUNIFICENT PRIZE,

IS MOST RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED.



#### PREFACE.

Some years ago I hasarded the remark that Latin scholarship was not flourishing in England\*. It is with a full conviction of the continued truthfulness of this statement of opinion that I find myself obliged to undertake the compilation of a new Latin Grammar. For although the last ten years have been more prolific than any previous time in elementary treatises on the Latin Language, I am still unable to find a book. which I can, with perfect confidence and satisfaction, place in the hands of my younger pupils. Undoubtedly many of these recently published Grammars contain much that is valuable and scholarlike, and of course there is much which must be common to all books of the kind. But I am not acquainted with any Latin Grammar, whether old or new, which does not exhibit a faulty arrangement of the materials, and which is not deformed, more or less, by grave mistakes, both of principle and of detail. Besides this, every introduction to the study of Latin, which has fallen in my way, errs either in excess or defecteither contains what is superfluous or omits what is indispensable to the young learner.

<sup>•</sup> Preface to Varronianus: a critical and historical Introduction to the philological study of the Latin Language. Cambridge, 1844.

Circumstances connected with this School have suggested a special reason why I should undertake the task which I have imposed upon myself. At the commemoration of our three-hundredth Anniversary in 1850, one of the most distinguished scholars in this country, the present Bishop of London, not forgetful of the Royal Foundation in which his great abilities received their earliest development, instituted a gold medal here for the encouragement of Latin Prose Composition, which, as he justly remarked, is much neglected in England. I have felt that I could not fully carry out the bishop's wishes, in regard to this department of classical learning in Bury School, without a better manual of instruction than I have been able to find, and thus I have had a special reason for the present endeavour to supply the deficiency by my own exertions. And I may truly say that the work was not in itself very inviting, and that I did require some stimulus to urge me to an undertaking of such tedious labour and humble usefulness.

The best mode of stating what has been attempted in this manual, will be to point out the way in which I intend it to be used. When the learner has committed to memory the regular declensions and conjugations, he should at once begin to construe from Woodford's Epitome of Cosar, making himself familiar with the vocabulary of that useful little book as he proceeds. With this part of his work he should connect the sixteen rules (Art. 128), which I have placed at the head of the Syntax. Boys must always charge their memory with the facts of language before they can

master the reasons which explain them, and these leading rules should be called for by the teacher in every sentence of Cæsar, to which they are applicable. In the meantime, the rest of the Syntax and Prosody should be read aloud in the class, and made the subject of constant oral examination. When the pupil can construe Cæsar with facility and exactness, he should commence the composition of familiar sentences in Latin; and I hope to furnish him, before long, with a set of exercises adapted to this Grammar, which will impress upon his recollection all the main facts connected with the genders of nouns and inflexions of verbs. At as early a period as possible, the memorial lines scattered through this Grammar, or placed together in the Appendix, should be learned by heart, and made continually available. I have satisfied myself, by many years experience as a teacher, that this barbarous jingle of metre and rhyme is an effectual aid to the memory, and I have not hesitated in some places to introduce a mixture of Latin and English which may remind some readers of the Capuchin Feld-Prediger in Wallenstein's Lager. As the student's range of reading is widened, the reference to the Grammar should become more frequent and general. From Latin sentences he should pass on to metrical lines, carefully avoiding the waste of time occasioned by nonsense verses as they are called; and from simple translations in prose and verse he should ascend to original composition. I venture to believe that if the method of study which I have indicated were pursued for two or three years under the eye of a careful and

competent teacher, and assisted by an intelligent perusal of the best authors, the very small number of real Latin scholars in this country would soon be augmented by a large body of youthful recruits.

The subjoined list of books contains every grammatical work to which I have made reference during the compilation of this Grammar. I am not aware that I am indebted to them for any thing beyond the suggestion of well-known facts and examples; but, for this purpose, I have freely used some of them, as their authors had used the works of their predecessors. My acknowledgements are due less to individuals than to the Latin scholarship which for the last 300 years has been firmly established in Europe, and to which I have here endeavoured to make some additional contributions. No one can be more convinced than I am that it is much easier to perceive the imperfections of existing works than to realize the idea of desiderated excellence. and, though there is little grandeur in the title of a Complete Latin Grammar, the proper execution of such a task is no slight business; but I feel persuaded, that, whatever may be the faults of this book, it presents for the first time a rational arrangement of the facts, and corrects for the first time many time-honoured inaccuracies.

J. W. D.

King Edward's School, Bury St Edmund's, December 10, 1851.

#### WORKS ON LATIN GRAMMAR.

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- Rudiments of the Latin Language, for the use of Charter-House School, [by J. Russell, D.D.] London, 1825.
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- Ausführliche Grammatik der Lateinischen Sprache zum Schulgebrauche, von August Grotefend. 2 Vol. Hannover. 1829-30.
- 5. King Edward the VIth's Latin Grammar. London, 1841.
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- 9. The same translated, by the Rev. G. Woods. Oxford, 1849.
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## PART I.

# Accidence, or the Forms of Words.

#### CHAPTER I.

#### INTRODUCTION.

## § 1. Letters and Parts of Speech.

- (1) The Latin alphabet differs from the English only by the omission of the letter w. We pronounce the letters as we do our own, taking care to articulate every syllable, and to give every vowel an independent value. It cannot be doubted, however, that our pronunciation is very unlike that of the ancient Romans.
- (2) Of the six Latin vowels, a, e, o are pure vowels; i and u in all original forms are semi-consonants, or derived from consonants; in other cases they are weaker articulations of e and o; y is merely a representative of the Greek v. Long and short vowels are not distinguished otherwise than by the marks or  $\smile$  placed over them. In lengthened or composite forms  $\check{a}$  may pass into  $\check{\imath}$  and  $\check{e}$  or  $\check{u}$  successively,  $\check{e}$  into  $\check{\imath}$ , and  $\check{o}$  into  $\check{u}$ .
- (3) A diphthong is properly a semi-consonant, i or u, subjoined to a pure vowel. Thus we ought to have, as in Greek, ai, au; ei, eu; oi, ou. But ai, ei, eu are of rare occurrence in Latin: ai is written ae, and in longer or composite forms i; au is found, but passes into u, u, or u in longer forms; u is written u or in longer forms u; and u is always written u.

1

(4) Of the 19 consonants, 11 are mutes, and 8 are semi-vowels.

The mutes are tenues p c, k, q t media b g d aspirata f, v

The semi-vowels are sibilants s, x, z, j liquids l, m, n, r

The letter k is found only in abbreviations, and z only in foreign, chiefly Greek, words.

- Obs. The declensions and conjugations are arranged according to this distinction of vowels and consonants.
- (5) There are eight parts of speech or different kinds of words: four declined or admitting of change; and four undeclined: the declined are the noun, which is the name of a thing or quality, according as it is substantive or adjective; the verb, which denotes an act; the pronoun, which indicates a position, and generally refers to some noun expressed or understood; and the participle, which combines the meaning of a verb with the form of a noun: the undeclined are the adverb, which qualifies the verb; the preposition, which defines the relation of a noun; the conjunction, which joins words and sentences; and the interjection, which expresses an exclamation.

#### CHAPTER II.

#### DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

#### § 2. First or -a Declension.

(6) There are two vowel declensions in a and o; and one consonant declension, to which the semi-consonant declensions in i and u are properly appended.

(7) The first declension includes Latin nouns in  $\check{a}$  masculine and feminine, and Greek words in  $\bar{a}s$  or  $\bar{e}s$  masculine and  $\bar{e}$  feminine; as  $agric\check{o}la$ , 'a husbandman;' mensa, 'a table;' Æneas and Anchises, the names of men; and  $cramb\bar{e}$ , 'a cabbage.'

Obs. The six cases, namely, the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, and ablative, are explained in the syntax. The locative is only used in certain nouns, as: domi, 'at home;' partim, 'in part.'

#### Singular.

(8)	N.	agricola	mensa
•	G.	agricolæ	mensæ
	$\mathbf{D}.$	agricolæ	mensæ
	A.	agricolam	mensam
	v.	agricola	mensa
	Ab.	agricolâ	$\mathbf{mens}\mathbf{\hat{a}}$

#### Plural.

N.	agricolæ	mensæ
G.	agricolārum	mensārum
D.	agricolis	mensis
A.	agricolās	mensās
V.	agricolæ	mensæ
Ab.	agricolis	mensis

(9) Greek nouns differ from the Latin only in the singular number, as in the following examples:

N.	Æne $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ s	Anchisēs	crambë
G.	$oldsymbol{x}$ ne $oldsymbol{x}$	Anchisæ	crambēs
D.	Æneæ	Anchisæ	crambæ
A.	Æneam or -ān	Anchisem or -ēn	<b>cra</b> mbēn
v.	Æneā	Anchisā	$\mathbf{cramb}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$
Ab.	Æneâ	Anchise	<b>cra</b> mbē

(10) Some feminine nouns retain the original D. and Ab. pl. in  $-\bar{a}bus$ ; as  $de\bar{a}bus$ ,  $fili\bar{a}bus$ ,  $amb\bar{a}bus$ : and in the poets, the older form of the G. sing. in  $\bar{a}$ 

is still found: the original s of the G. sing. is retained only in *paterfamilias*. The genitive plural is sometimes shortened into -um, as calicolum, amphorum.

#### § 3. Second or -o Declension.

(11) The characteristic ŏ is changed into ŭ in the N. A. sing., but retained in the D. Ab. sing. and G. pl. The termination -ros or -eros is shortened into er, as we see in ager, compared with ἄγρος, Alexander compared with ἀλέξανδρος. Thus we have masculine nouns in us or er, and neuter nouns in um; as: dominus, 'a lord;' populus, 'a people;' magister, 'a master;' puer, 'a boy;' liber, 'a book;' ager, 'a field;' regnum, 'a kingdom;' bellum, 'a war.'

#### Singular.

dominus	magister	puer	regnum
domini	magistri	pueri	regni
domino	<b>O</b> .	puero	regno
dominum		puerum	regnum
domine	magister	puer	regnum
domino	magistro	puero	regno
	domini domino dominum	domini magistri domino magistro dominum magistrum domine magister	domini magistri pueri domino magistro puero dominum magistrum puerum domine magister puer

#### Plural.

N.	domini	magistri	pueri	regna
G.	dominõrum	magistrorum	puerōrum	regnörum
D.	dominis	magistris	pueris	regnis
A.	dominōs	magistrōs	puerōs	regna
V.	domini	magistri	pueri	regna.
Ab.	dominis	magistris	pueris	regnis

Liber, 'a book,' and ager, 'a field,' are declined like magister; but Liber, 'Bacchus,' and liberi, 'children,' like puer.

(12) Deus, 'God,' makes O Deus in the vocative singular. The plural is thus declined:

N. V. Dî (seldom Dei)

G. Deûm or Deorum

D. Dîs (seldom Deis)

A. Deos

Ab. Dîs (seldom Deis).

- (13) The genitive plural in -um for -orum, as in Deum for Deorum, is particularly common in the case of nouns denoting trades, as fabrum, 'of carpenters,' from faber; coins, as sestertium numum, 'of sesterces;' and in poetry in adjectives and names of people, as magnanimum Rutulum, 'of the courageous Rutuli.'
- (14) In Classical Latinity, substantives in -ius and -ium made the G. sing. in -i, as Virgilius (or Vergilius), G. Virgili; ingenium, 'disposition,' or 'natural abilities,' G. ingĕni. But this rule does not apply to adjectives, for we have in the same line of Horace:

## egregii altique silenti.

- (15) Proper names in -ius, together with fīlius, 'a son,' and genius, 'a tutelary spirit,' make the vocative in i; as Virgilius V. Virgili, Mercurius V. Mercuri; filius V. fili. This rule does not apply to adjectives, as Cynthius V. Cynthie, or to nouns in -īus Gr. -ειος, as Sperchīus V. Sperchīe. The vocative Cāī exposes the common error of pronouncing Cā-ĭūs as a word of two syllables.
- (16) Greek nouns in  $-\delta s$ ,  $-\delta n$  retain the  $\delta$  in the N. and A. as:

N.	Delos	colŏn
G.	${f Deli}$	coli
D.	$\mathbf{Delo}$	colo
A.	Delŏn or Delum	colŏn
V.	Dele	colŏn
Ab.	Delo	colo

- (17) Those, which, in the original, end in  $-\omega_s$ , sometimes retain the  $\tilde{o}$  throughout; as:
  - N. V. Androgeös
  - G. Androgeo or -i
  - D. Androgeo
  - A. Androgeon or -o or -ona
  - Ab. Androgeo.
- (18) Greek nouns in -eus (-eus) sometimes follow the second declension in Latin; as:
  - N. Orpheus
  - G. Orpheos, -ei, -i
  - D. Orphei, -ei, -eo
  - A. Orphea, -eum
  - V. Orpheu
  - Ab. Orpheo.

We have also Achillei and Ulixei in the G., though in other cases Achilles and Ulixes follow the third declension.

- (19) Contracted Greek nouns are contracted also in Latin; as:
  - N. Panthous
  - G. Panthi
  - D. Ab. Pantho
  - A. Panthum
    - V. Panthū.
- (20) Neuter nouns corresponding to Greek words in -os follow this declension; as *pelagus*, 'the surface of the sea;' *virus*, 'poison.' *Vulgus*, 'the multitude,' is generally neuter; but sometimes also masculine.
  - (21) The following nouns in -us, -ŏs are feminine:
- (1) Names of countries; as: Ægyptus, Cyprus, Samos, &c.

- (2) Alvus, 'belly;' colus, 'distaff,' or 'spinning-rock;' humus, 'ground;' vannus, 'winnowing fan.'
- (3) Greek words, as periodus, 'period;' dialectus, 'dialect;' abyssus, 'a bottomless pit,' &c.
- (4) All names of trees, and some of shrubs; as populus, 'the poplar' (distinguished by quantity also from pŏpulus, 'the people;') fagus, 'the beech;' pirus. 'the pear-tree;' mālus and pōmus, 'the apple-tree' (but pirum, 'the pear;' mālum and pōmum, 'the apple;') buxus, 'the box-tree' (but buxum, 'box-wood;') &c.

#### § 4. Third Declension, or consonantal and semiconsonantal nouns.

(22) Nouns of the third declension are arranged according to the nature of the characteristic consonant which precedes the case-ending; and they fall into two great classes, according as they retain the consonant or vocalize it into i or u. The characteristic is often lost in the nominative singular, but is always seen in the oblique cases.

#### A. First class, or consonantal nouns.

(23) (a) Labial nouns are m. or f.; feminine, as: urb-s, 'a city;' stirps, 'the root of a tree;' trabs, 'a beam' or 'rafter;' common, as: adeps, 'tallow;' auceps, 'a fowler;' forceps, 'a pair of tongs,' which change e into in the oblique cases.

#### Singular.

N. V	. urbs	forceps
G.	urbis	forcipis
D.	urbi	forcipi
A.	$\mathbf{urbem}$	forcipem
Ab.	$\mathbf{urbe}$	forcipe

#### Plural.

N. A.V.	urbes	forcipes
G.	urbium	forcipum
D. Ab.	urbibus	forcipibus.

(24) (b) Guttural nouns are m. or f.; as: pax, pācis, f. 'peace;' fax, făcis, f. 'a torch;' dux, dŭcis, c. a leader; nux, nŭcis, f. 'a nut; lux, lūcis, f. 'light;' judex, judicis, c. 'a judge;' nex, necis, f. 'death;' lex, lēgis, f. 'law;' grex, gregis, m. 'a herd;' vervex, vervēcis, m. 'a wether-sheep;' vibex, vibīcis, f. 'the mark of a blow or stripe, i.e. 'a weal;' artifex, artificis, c. 'an artist;' remex, remigis, m. 'a rower;' cornix, cornīcis, f. 'a rook;' calix, calicis, m. 'a chalice;' vox, vocis, f. 'a voice;' conjux, conjugis, c. 'a consort;' bombyx, bombūcis, m. 'a kind of wasp,' also, 'a silk-worm;' strix. strigis. f. 'a screech-owl;' lynx, lyncis, c. 'a lynx; 'sphinx, sphingis, f. 'a sphinx.' The following are irregular: senex, senis, c. 'an old man or woman: supellex, supellectilis, f. 'household furniture:' nix. nivis. f. 'snow.'

#### Singular.

N. V.	dux	judex	conjux
G.	ducis	judicis	conjugis:
D.	duci	judici	conjugi
Ab.	duce	judice	conjuge

#### Plural.

N. A. V.	duces	judices	conjuges
G.	ducum	judicum	conjugum
D. Ab.	ducibus	judicibus	conjugibus.

(25) (c) Dental nouns are of all genders: (a) m. and f. in -ăd, as: lampas, lampădis, f. 'a lamp;' vas vădis, c. 'a surety in criminal cases;' m. and f. in -āt, as: ætās, ætātis, f. 'an age;' Arpīnās, Arpīnātis,

m. 'a man of Arpīnum;' f. in -ūt, as: virtūs, virtūtis, 'virtue,' or 'manliness;' in -ēt, as quies, quiētis, f. 'quiet;' m. and f. in -ĭd, as: lapĭs, lapĭdīs, m. 'a stone; cuspis, cuspidis, f. 'a point; in -īt, only in lis, lītis, f. 'a law-suit,' (for stlīt, Germ. streit); and in the proper names, Samnis, Samnītis, m. 'a man of Samnium; Quiris, Quiritis, 'a Roman citizen: Dis. Dītis, 'the infernal king;' in -it, as: miles, militis, m. 'a soldier;' comes, comitis, c. 'a companion;' in -ot, as: dos, dōtis, f. 'a free gift;' sacerdos, sacerdōtis, m. and f. 'a priest,' or 'priestess;' in -ōd, as: custos, custōdis, c. 'a guard;' in -ĕd, -ūd, &c., as: pes, pĕdis, m. 'a foot;' obses, obsĭdis, c. 'a hostage;' palus, palūdis, f. 'a marsh; præs, prædis, c. 'a surety in money-matters;' pecus, pecudis, f. 'a beast' (but pecus, pecoris, n. cattle; ') fraus, fraudis, f. 'mischief,' or 'guile; laus, laudis, f. 'praise;' in -t, as: pars, partis, f. 'a part;' in -nt, as: frons, frontis, f. 'a forehead;' pons, pontis, m. 'a bridge;' fons, fontis, m. 'a fountain;' in -nd, as: frons, frondis, f. 'a bough;' glans, glandis, f. 'an acorn; in -ēd, only merces, mercēdis, f. 'wages' (distinguish merx, mercis, f. 'merchandise;') and hæres, hærēdis, c. 'an heir.' To this declension belong all the active participles, as amans, amantis, 'loving;' serpens, 'creeping,' hence 'a serpent,' which insert i in the G. plural.

#### Singular.

N. V. G. D. A. Ab.	lapis lapidis lapidi lapidem lapide	comes comitis comiti comitem comite	serpens serpentis serpentem serpente
		Plural.	
N. A. V.	. lapides	comites	serpentes

N. A. V. lapides comites serpentes
 G. lapidum comitum serpentium
 D. Ab. lapidibus comitibus serpentibus.

(26) (β) Dental nouns of the neuter gender properly end in t, but caput, capitis, 'a head,' and its compounds, are the only words which still retain the genuine characteristic in the nominative. It is sometimes preserved in the oblique cases, as in poēma, poemātis, 'a poem;' lac, lactis, 'milk;' or under the medial form d, as cor, cordis, 'the heart.' But in most instances it is either omitted altogether, as in carmen, carminis, 'a poem' (cf. carmentis, 'a poetess;') agmen, agminis, 'a troop' (cf. armentum, 'a herd;') or softened into s or r, as in corpus, corpŏris, 'a body;' tempus, tempŏris, 'time;' opus, opĕris, 'a work;' os, ossis, 'a bone;' some,—as: jecur (for jecinor), jecinŏris, 'the liver;' iter (for itiner), itinĕris, 'the journey;' jubar, jubāris, 'a ray of light;' sal, sălis, 'salt;' nectar, nectăris, 'nectar;' far, farris, 'corn;'—probably had both l and t, and r and t in the original form.

#### Singular.

N. A. \	7. caput	corpus	opus	carmen
G.	capitis	corporis	operis	carminis
D.	capiti	corpori	operi	carmini
Ab.	capite	copore	opere	carmine

#### Plural.

- N. A. V. capita corpora opera carmina
  G. capitum corporum operum carminum
  D. Ab. capitibus corporibus operibus carminibus.
- (27) (d) Liquid nouns are generally of dental origin, and very much resemble some of the neuters, which have just been mentioned. Thus we have nouns in -ān, as: Titan, Titānis, m. 'a Titan;' in -ōn, as: sermo, sermōnis, m. 'a discourse;' rătio, rationis, f. 'an account,' 'a reason;' in -ĭn, as: ordo, ordĭnis, m. 'an order;' homo, hominis, m. 'a man' (whence nēmo = ne-homo;) virgo, virgīnis, f. 'a virgin,' to which class

belong caro, carnis, f. 'flesh;' in l, as: sol, sōlis, m. 'the sun;' consul, consulis, m. 'the consul;' mel, mellis, n. 'honey;' in r, as: pater, patris, m. 'a father;' ver, vēris, n. 'spring,' to which class belong Cĕres, Cerĕris, f. 'the goddess of corn;' os, ōris, n. 'a face;' rus, rūris, n. 'the country;' flos, flōris, m. 'a flower;' mos, mōris, m. 'a custom;' æs, æris, n. 'bronze;' and the solitary nouns, cinis, cinĕris, m. 'ashes;' pulvis, pulvĕris, m. 'dust.'

#### Singular.

N.V.	sermo	virgo	pater	mos	08
G.	sermonis	virginis	patris	moris	oris
D.	sermoni	virgini	patri	$\mathbf{mori}$	ori
A.	sermonem	virginem	patrem	morem	08
Ab.	sermone	virgine	patre	more	ore

#### Plural.

N. A.V. sermones virgines patres mores ora G. sermonum virginum patrum morum orum D. Ab. sermonibus virginibus patribus moribus oribus.

## B. Second class, or semi-consonantal nouns.

(28) (a) Nouns in -i properly retain this vocalized consonant throughout all the cases; but when l or r precedes the termination in a neuter noun, the i is either omitted, or changed into e; some nouns, which have -is in the nominative, have occasionally -em in the accusative; others have more generally -em than -im; others have always -es for -e-is in the nominative, and -em for -e-im in the accusative, and e for i in the ablative; and lastly, there are nouns in -a-is=es which retain  $-\bar{e}$  throughout the cases. Of the pure form in -is, examples are furnished by sitis, 'thirst,' and the names of some towns and rivers, as: Tiberis, m. 'the Tiber:' the i is generally retained in the accusative of

febris, f. 'fever;' puppis, f. 'the stern of a ship;' turris, f. 'a tower;' restis, f. 'a rope;' securis, f. 'an axe;' more rarely in navis, f. 'a ship;' clavis, f. 'a key;' messis, f. 'a harvest;' a large class, like vates, m. 'a prophet;' nubes, f. 'a cloud,' have -es and -em; a smaller class, as: res, f. 'a thing;' dies, c. 'a day\*;' facies, f. 'a face,' have & or \(\bar{e}\) throughout; mare, n. 'the sea,' changes i into e in the N. A.V.; and animal, n. 'an animal;' puteal, n. 'the cover of a pit;' calcar, n. 'a spur,' have lost the characteristic i in the N. A.V. sing. Vates, canis, juvenis, omit the i in the G. plural.

#### Singular.

N.V. puppis nubes res dies mare animal G. puppis nubis rĕi diēi maris animālis D. puppi nubi rĕi diēi mari animālis A. puppim and -em nubem rem diem mare animal Ab. puppi nube rē diē mari animāli.

Obs. The nouns in -es, -ei are extensions of nouns in -a. Cf. materia, 'the mother-stuff, or materials,' with its other form materies = mater-ia-is. They retain the G. pl. in -rum, as N.A.V. res, G. rērum, D. Ab. rēbus.

- (29) (β) Nouns in u originally terminated in the consonant v, and were declined like other consonant-nouns. Of this class only two remain: bos, bŏvis, c. 'an ox, bull, or cow,' and Ju-piter (Jus-pater), Jŏvis, m. 'the king of the gods.' The others retain u throughout the cases, as: fructus, m. 'fruit;' but the dative and ablative plural change this into i, except in the nouns: artus, m. 'a joint;' partus, m. 'a birth;' tribus, m. 'a tribe;' veru, n. 'a spit,' and in those,
- Dies is always m. in the plural, and almost always f. in the singular, when it signifies generally a period, but m. when it denotes a day in particular.

which have c before u, as: arcus, m. 'a bow.' Portus, m. 'a haven,' has both portubus and portibus.

		Singular.	•	
N. V.	bos	fructus	cornu	tribus
G.	bovis	fructūs	cornus	tribūs
D.	bovi	fructui	cornu	tribui
A.	bovem	fructum	cornu	tribum
Ab.	bove	fructu	cornu	tribu
•		Plural.		
N. A. V.	boves	fructus	cornua	tribūs
G.	boum	fructuum	cornuum	tribuum
D. Ab.	bubus	fructibus	cornibus	tribubus.

(30) Certain nouns in -us are sometimes declined throughout like the second declension, and sometimes take certain cases of the u declension, as: laurus, f. 'the laurel,' Ab. s. lauru, A. pl. laurus. Domus, f. 'a house,' exhibits peculiar irregularity:

	Singular.	Plural.
N. V.	. domus	domūs
G.	domūs	domuum, domorum
D.	domui (rarely domo)	domibus
Α.	domum	domos (rarely domús)
Ab.	domo (rarely domu)	domibus.

We have also the locative domi, 'at home.' These irregularities are generally remembered by the line:

'Tolle me, mu, mi, mis si declinare domus vis.'

### § 5. Declension of Adjectives.

(31) Adjectives have either distinct terminations for the three genders, or only two sets of terminations, by which the neuter is distinguished in the N. A. V. from the masculine and feminine.

## (a) Adjectives of three terminations.

(32) We have (a) masculines in -us or -er, like dominus and puer or magister feminines in -a, like mensa, and neuters in -um, like regnum; or (β) masculines in -er like pater; feminines in -is, like puppis, and neuters in -e, like mare. Thus, we have (a), bonus, 'good,' tener, 'tender.'

#### Singular. N. bonus bona bonum G. bonæ boni boni D. bonæ bono bono A. bonam bonum bonum V. bone bona bonum Ab. bono bono bonā Plural. N. bona boni bonæ bonorum G. bonorum bonarum D. bonis bonis bonis Α. bonos bonas bona V. bona boni bonæ bonis Ab. bonis bonis Singular. N. V. tener tenerum tenera teneri G. teneri teneræ D. teneræ tenero tenero teneram tenerum Α. tenerum Ab. tenerā tenero tenero Plural. N. V. teneri teneræ tenera tenerorum G. tenerorum tenerarum D. teneris teneris teneris tenera Α. teneros teneras teneris. Ab. teneris teneris

If the fem. has no e before r, the e is omitted in the oblique cases, as in niger, nigra, nigrum, 'black.'

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## (33) (β) Celer, 'swift,' is thus declined:

		omema.	
N. V.	celer	celeris	celere
G.	celeris	celeris	celeris
D.	celeri	celeri	celeri
A.	celerem	celerem	celerem
Ab.	celeri	celeri	celeri
		Plural.	
N. V.	celeres	celeres	celeri <b>a</b>
G.	celerium	celerium	celerium
D.	celeribus	celeribus	celeribus
A.	celeres	celeres	celeria
Ab.	celeres	celeres	celeria.

But we have celerum, when celeres signifies 'the old

Roman knights.'

If the fem. has no e before r, the e is omitted in the oblique cases, as in acer, acris, acre, 'sharp.' Vetus for veter, veteris distinguishes the gender only in the N. A. V., and has veterum in the G. plural.

#### (b) Adjectives of two terminations.

(34) Some, as tristis, 'sad;' mělior, 'better,' distinguish the masculine from the neuter in the N. A.V. of both numbers; but if the N. sing. ends in -x or -ns, it serves for all three genders, as in felix, 'happy;' ingens, 'big.'

Singular.

	M.F.	N.	M.F.	N.	
N.V.	tristis	triste	melior	melius	
G.	tristis		meliõi	ris .	
D.	tristi		meliōri		
<b>A.</b>	tristem		tristem meliörem		rem
Ab.	tristi		<b>meli</b> ō	re	

#### Plural.

	М.	F.	N.	M. I	F.	N.
N. A.V. G.		tes 1 tristium				meliora
D. Ab.		tristibus	-		neliōru nelioril	
			Singular.			
	3.6	107	NT.	M I	D	N

	M.F.	N.	M. F.	N.
N. V.	felix		ingens	
G.	felīcis		ingentis	
D.	felīci		ingenti	
Α.	felicem	felix	ingentem i	
Ab.	felīci		ingente,	oringenti

#### Plural.

	M.F.	N.	M. F.	N.
N. A.V.	felices	felicia	ingentes	ingentia
G.	felici	um	ingenti	ium
D. Ab.	felici	bus	ingenti	ibus.

Adjectives in -trix are only feminine in the singular, as: victrix causa, 'the victorious cause;' but we have victricia arma, in the plural.

(35) Certain distinctive adjectives, which might be termed pronouns, follow the declension of the pronouns in the G. and D. singular, which they form in -ius and -i; such as: unus, 'one;' alius, 'another;' uter, 'which of two;' alter, 'one of two;' ullus, 'any at all;' nullus, 'none at all;' solus, 'alone;' totus, 'whole;' neuter, 'neither;' uterque, 'both;' utervis, uterlibet, 'whichever you please,' &c. Alius (like ille, 'that other,' of which it is a by-form, see 62 infra), makes the N. A. sing. neut. in -ud.

N.	unus	una	unum
G.		unius	
D.		uni	
Α.	unum	unam	unum
Ab.	uno	unâ	uno
N.	alius	alia	aliud
G.		${f a}$ līus	
D.		alĭi	
A.	<b>al</b> ium	aliam	aliud
Ab.	alio	aliâ	alio
N.	uter	utra.	utrum
G.		utrĭus	
Ď.		utri	
A.	utrum	utram	utrum
Ab.	utro	utra	utro
N.	alter	altera	alterum
G.		<b>a</b> lterĭus	
D.		alteri	
A.	alterum	alteram	alterum
Ab.	altero	alterâ	altero.
			3 4 -

Obs. Unus has of course no plural, unless it is combined with a word which has no singular, as unw litterw, 'an epistle.'

# § 6. Degrees of Comparison.

- (36) Regularly the comparative and superlative are formed by adding -ior and -issimus to the root of the positive; thus we say, dur-us, 'hard,' dur-ior, 'harder' or 'more hard,' dur-issimus, 'hardest' or 'most hard;' moll-is, 'soft,' moll-ior, 'softer' or 'more soft,' moll-issimus, 'softest' or 'most soft.'
- (37) Adjectives in -er form the comparative and superlative by adding -rior or -erior to the root, as in

- pulch-er, 'beautiful,' pulch-rior, 'more beautiful,' pulch-errimus, 'most beautiful;' cel-er, 'swift,' cel-erior, 'swifter' or 'more swift,' cel-errimus, 'swiftest' or 'most swift.'
- (38) Adjectives in -ilis form the comparative regularly, but change -ilis into -illimus for the superlative. Thus we have facilis, 'easy,' facilior, 'easier,' facillimus, 'easiest.'
- (39) Verbal adjectives which end in -dicus, -ficus, -völus, form their comparatives and superlatives from the participles of their verbs; thus maledicus, 'slanderous,' maledicentissimus, 'most slanderous.'
- (40) Some comparative adjectives have a diminutive form in -culus, as grandiusoulus, 'a little older.'
- (41) Adverbs are generally compared in -ius and -e; as:

dignē, 'worthily;' dignius, dignissime. breviter, 'briefly;' brevius, brevissime. certō, 'certainly;' certius, certissime. sæpē, 'often;' sæpius, sæpissime. diū, 'long;' diūtius, diutissime.

# The following have no positive:

magis, 'more;' maxime, 'most.' ocius, 'more swiftly;' ocissime. potius, 'rather;' potissimum. prius, 'sooner;' primum.

The following have no comparative:

belle, 'prettily;' bellissime.
merito, 'deservedly;' meritissime.
ob, 'upon;' optime, 'uppermost,' i. e. 'best.'
nuper, 'lately,' nuperrime.

The following have no superlative:
satis, 'sufficiently;' satius, 'better.'
secus, 'otherwise;' secius, 'more otherwise.'

- (42) Many adjectives, especially those which have a vowel before -us in the positive, form their comparative and superlative by means of the adverbs magis and maxime.
- (43) The following adjectives, adverbs, and adverbs used as adjectives, are compared irregularly:

bonus, 'good;' melior, 'better;' optimus, 'best,' (from the preposition ob.)

malus, 'bad;' pejor, 'worse;' pessimus, 'worst.'

magnus, 'great;' major, maximus.

multus, 'much;' sing. plus, G. pluris, 'more;' plurimus.

Plur. plures, plura,
plurium, pluribus, 'several.'
parvus, 'little;' minor, 'less;' minimus, 'least.'
nēquam, 'worthless;' nēquior, nēquissimus.
frugi, 'worthy;' frugalior, frugalissimus.

- (44) Senex, 'old,' jūvēnis, 'young,' have the comparatives senior, junior, which are used to express the relative age of two classes, as juniores patrum, 'the younger' or 'more recently elevated patricians.' Gradations of age are properly expressed by the phrases major natu, minor natu, maximus natu, minimus natu, or with natu omitted, as Fabius Maximus.
- (45) Some adjectives expressing relations of space, time, or degree, have either no regular positive, or have it only in some prepositional form, or with some limitation of inflexion or meaning; thus we have the comparative and superlative citerior, citimus, 'more' or 'most on this side,' but only the preposition citra for the positive; similarly interior, intimus, 'more' or

'most inward,' but only the preposition infra in the positive. Though we might imagine a form deter, detra (cf. dexter, dextra, dexterior), we have only the comparative and superlative deterior, 'worse,' i. e. 'more downward,' deterrimus (cf. optimus from ob). The poetic ocior, 'swifter,' ocissimus, have no positive except the unusual adverb ociter (41); and potior, 'preferable,' potissimus, are used in a somewhat different sense from their positive potis, 'able.' Exterior. 'outer,' extremus, 'last' or 'utmost,' have in the plural of the positive exteri, 'foreigners,' and exterce nationes, extera regna, and also the prep. extra, 'out.' Similarly, superior, 'higher,' suprēmus, 'extreme,' 'last in time,' or summus, 'highest;' and inferior, 'lower,' infimus or imus, 'lowest,' have for the positive the prepositions supra and infra; and the phrases superum mare, 'the Adriatic or upper sea,' and inferum mare, 'the Etruscan or lower sea,' superi, 'the gods above, supera, 'the upper parts of the world,' inferi, 'the dead as inhabitants of the lower world,' infera flumina, 'the rivers of the infernal regions,' inferæ partes, 'the subterraneous regions.' In the same way. posterior, 'later' or 'hinder,' postremus, 'last,' are referred immediately to the preposition post, 'after:' but we have posterum diem, postera nocte, postera ætas, where the 'following' or 'subsequent' in order of time is referred to: posteri are 'descendants,' and postumus, 'last-born,' means 'a child born after its father's death.' The following have only adverbial or prepositional positives:

ante, 'before,' prior, 'former,' primus, 'first.'
intra, 'within,' interior, 'inner,' intimus, 'most inward.'

ultra, 'beyond,' ulterius, 'further,' ultimus, 'last.'

prope, 'near,' propior, 'nearer,' proximus, 'nearest' (propinquus).

#### § 7. Anomalous Nouns.

(46) Anomalous nouns may be divided into four classes: (1.) those which are used in the plural or singular only; (11.) those which vary, or have more than one form, in the plural; (111.) those which employ the plural in a special or separate sense; (1v.) those which appear in some only of their cases.

### I. (1) The following have no singular:

(47) (a) First Declension.

angustiæ, straits. argutiæ, refinements. balnece, the public bathhouse \*. biaæ. a carriage, with quadrigæ, stwo or four horses respectively. calendæ or kalendæ, the first of the month. clitellæ, panniers. cunce, a cradle. deliciæ, an object of delight. diræ, a curse. divitiæ, riches. epulæ, a feast †. excubiæ, the watch. exsequiæ, funeral solemnities. exuviæ, spoils (lit. strippings.) facetiæ, pleasantries. feriæ, a holiday.

habenæ, reins. induciæ, an armistice. ineptiæ, silliness. inferiæ, funereal offerings. inimicitiæ, enmity. insidiæ, an ambuscade. lapicidīnæ, a quarry. manubiæ, booty. minæ, threats. minutiæ, details. nonæ, the fifth or seventh of the month (55, Obs. 5.) nugæ, trifles. nundinæ, the market-day. nuptiæ, nuptials. phaleræ, trappings (of a horse.) prestigiæ, tricks. primitiæ, first-fruits. quisquiliæ, rubbish. reliquiæ, relics. scala, the stairs. scopæ, a broom.

<sup>\*</sup> balneum, pl. balnea; is 'a private bath.'
† epulum is 'a public entertainment.'

salebræ, unpolished diction. salīnæ, a salt-work. tenebræ, darkness. thermæ, a warm-bath. tricæ\*, trifles, minor annoyances. valvæ, folding-doors. vindiciæ, a defence.

### (48) (b) Second Declension.

bellaria, dainties.
cancelli, a lattice.
cani, white hairs.
castra †, a camp.
crepundia, toys.
codicilli ‡, writing tablets.
cunabula, }
incunabula, }
a cradle.
exta, entrails.
fasti, annals.
fori, benches or seats (in
a ship or in the circus.)

inferi, (45).
justa, funereal offerings.
lamenta, lamentations.
liberi, children.
loculi, a closet.
lustra, a thicket.
munia, duties.
posteri, (45).
præcordia, the diaphragm.
sata, corn-fields.
superi, (45).
tesqua, wild-places.

# (49) (c) Third Declension.

ambāges, a circuit (Ab. s.)
antes, rows or ranks (of
vines, soldiers, &c.)
artus, limbs, joints.
brevia, shoals.
cælites, the gods above.
cervīces, the hinder part of
the necks.

compèdes, fetters (Ab. s.)
fauces, the throat (Ab. s.)
fides, a lute.
fores, a door.
idus, the thirteenth or fifteenth of a month (55,
Obs. 5.)
lemures, goblins.

\* Apina and Trica were two small towns in Apulia: hence apina (once) and trica are used to signify the contemptible but annoying vulgarity of a country place.

† castrum is used in the names of places, as Castrum Novum. ‡ codicillus, which occurs only once, and in Cato, denotes the trunk of a little tree.

§ cervix occurs in poetry in this sense; in prose, it means the neck of a vessel, &c.

majores, ancestors.

mænia, the collective buildings of a city.

minores, posterity.

obices, a bolt. (Ab. s.)

preces, supplications (Ab. s.)

proceres, nobles.
sentes, a thorn-bush.
sordes, dirt.
vepres, a bramble.
verbera, stripes.
viscera, the intestines.

### (50) I. (2) The following have no plural:

- (a) Words denoting substances; as: aurum, 'gold,' lignum, 'wood,' æs, 'bronze,' oleum, 'oil,' sanguis, 'blood:' plurals are sometimes used to denote pieces of the material, as: æra, 'bronze statues;' ceræ, 'wax tablets;' ligna, 'billets of wood.'
- (b) Abstract nouns; as: senectus, 'old age;' pietas, 'affection' or 'duty;' quies, 'rest;' fames, 'hunger;' indŏles, 'disposition.'
- (c) Words denoting objects, which are necessarily collective or undistributable; as: vulgus, 'a crowd;' tellus, 'the earth;' supellex, 'furniture;' ævum, 'time;' ver, 'the spring;' vesper, 'the evening,' &c.
- (51) II. The following vary or have more than one form in the plural:

jocus, a jest, pl. joci, joca.
locus, a place, pl. loca, places, but loci, passages in
books, objects, and topics of argument.
frenum, a bit or bridle, pl. freni and frena.
cælum, heaven, pl. cæli.
ostrea, an oyster, pl. ostrea, ostreæ.
rastrum, a mattock, pl. rastri and rastra.
sestertius, 2½ ases or pounds, pl. sestertii and sestertia.
sibilus, a hissing, pl. sibili, poet. sibila.
tartar us, hell, pl. tartara.

Plural.

# (52) III. The following employ the plural in a separate or special sense:

Singular. ædes, a temple.

aqua, water.

auxilium, help.
bonum, a good or blessing.
carcer, a prison.
cera, wax.
comitium, a place in the
forum at Rome.
copia, abundance.
facultas, a power or faculty.
finis, an end.
fortuna, fortune (in the
abstract.)
gratia, favour or gratitude.
hortus, a garden.

impedimentum, a hindrance.
littera, a letter of the
alphabet.
ludus, play, or a fencingschool.
lustrum, a term of five
years.
naris, the nostril.
natalis, a birth-day.
opera, exertion.
ops (not used in the nominative), help.

ædes, a. temples. b. a house. aquæ, a. waters. b. mineral spring. auxilia, auxiliary troops. bona, goods, property. carceres, starting-post. cerce, a waxen tablet. comitia, the election-meeting. copiæ, a. stores. b. troops. facultates, means or resources. fines, boundaries. fortunæ, the gifts of fortune. gratiæ, thanks. horti, a. gardens. b. a. pleasure - garden, or country-house. impedimenta, a. hindrances. b. baggage. litteræ, an epistle, or literature. ludi, a public spectacle, or games. lustra, haunts of wild beasts, a brothel. nares, the nose. natales, pedigree. operæ, workmen. opes, power, riches.

Singular.

pars, a part.

rostrum, a beak, the beak of a ship.

sal, salt. tabula, a board. Plural.

partes, a. parts. b. the part of an actor in a play, side, party.

rostra, the pulpit for speaking in the Roman forum, adorned with the beaks of captured ships. sales, wit (cf. facetiæ).

sales, wit (cf. facetiæ).
tabulæ, a. boards. b. an
account-book, a document.

(53) IV. The following appear in some only of the cases:

(a) Some are indeclinable or found only in one case; as: fas, 'right;' nefas, 'wrong;' nihil, 'nothing; 'instar, 'equality' or 'likeness;' necesse, 'necesse sity; opus, 'need; cape, 'an onion; mane, 'the morning' (also in the abl.); gummi, 'gum.' Greek neuters in -os have only the N. Acc. sing. and plur.; as: melos, mele, 'songs.' The same is the case with the following words, which however are fully declined in the singular: farra, 'corn;' mella, 'honey;' mëtus, 'fears;' murmura, 'murmurs;' rura, 'countries;' situs, 'abodes;' spes, 'hopes;' tura, 'frankincense,' Some are used only in the ablative, as pondo, which is employed either to denote a single pound in weight, as: coronam auream, libram pondo, a crown of gold, a pound in weight,' or to signify a number of pounds, as: quinquagena pondo data consulibus, '50 lbs. of copper were given to each of the consuls.' From the same root we have sponte, signifying an impulse or inclination, which is used with possessives; as: mea sponte, 'by my own free inclination,' 'of my own accord.' Similarly, we have many verbal substantives or supines with a genitive or possessive pronoun, as;

jussu populi, 'by order of the people;' meo rogatu, 'at my request.' To the same class belong natu, 'in respect of birth; as grandis natu, 'advanced in years;' maximus natu, 'oldest.' Some of these verbals are used in the Dat. only, and in particular combinations, as: derisui esse, 'to be a laughing-stock;' ostentui esse, 'to be shown.' In promptu, 'ready to be drawn upon,' in procinctu, 'prepared for fighting,' are used only in these prepositional phrases. The dative frugi, and the locative nequam, are used as regular adjectives, equivalent to frugālis and vilis, thus: homo frugi, 'an honest man; homo nequam, 'a worthless fellow.' Others are used only in the Accus., as: suppetias ferre, 'to bring assistance; infitias ire, 'to deny; ad incitas redigere, 'to reduce to extremity;' venum ire, dăre, 'to be sold,' 'to sell;' others only in the G., as: non nauci facere, 'to estimate at less than a farthing;' i.e. 'to hold cheap; dicis causa, 'for form's sake.' Secus is either a synonym of sexus, and used only in the Accus. with virile or muliebre, or it is an adverb signifying 'otherwise.' (b) Others have special defects; thus: ambāaes. 'a circuit,' compes, 'a fetter,' &c. have only the Ab.s.; vis, 'force,' has only N. A. Ab. s., but full pl.; and daps, 'a feast,' frux, 'fruit,' vix, 'change,' &c. have all but the N. sing.

# § 8. Numerals.

(54) Numerals are partly adjectives and partly adverbs, and are divided into six classes: (a) Cardinals, which answer to the question, how many? (b) Ordinals, which combine the idea of number with that of order or arrangement; (c) Distributives, which indicate the number of things to be taken together; (d) Multiplicatives, which state out of how many parts a whole is composed; (e) Proportionals, which state the rate of increase; and (f) Numeral Adverbs, which indicate how often a thing is repeated in time.

# (55) (a) Cardinals.

	<b>\</b> / \ /	
1.	I.	unus.
2.	II.	duo.
<b>3.</b> .	III.	tres.
<b>4.</b>	IV.	quatuor.
<b>5.</b>	V.	quinque
6.	VI.	sex.
7.	VII.	septem.
8.	VIII.	octo.
9.	IX.	novem.
10.	<b>X</b> .	decem.
11.	XI.	undecim.
12.	XII.	${\it duodecim}.$
13.	XIII.	tredecim.
14.	XIV.	quatuordecim.
15.	$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}$ .	quindecim.
16.	XVI.	sedecim.
17.	XVII.	septendecim.
18.	XVIII.	duodeviginti.
19.	XIX.	undeviginti.
20.	XX.	viginti.
30.	XXX.	triginta.
40.	XL.	quadraginta.
<b>50.</b>	<u>L</u> .	quinquaginta.
60.	LX.	sexaginta.
70.	LXX.	septuaginta.
80.	LXXX.	octoginta.
90.	XC.	nonagina.
100.	C.	centum.
200.	CC.	ducenti, -æ, -a.
300.	CCC.	trecenti.
400.	cccc.	quadringenti.
500.	D or IQ.	quingenti.
600.	DC or IQC.	sexcenti.
700.	DCC or TQCC.	septingenti.
800.	DCCC or IoCCC.	octingenti.
900.	DCCCC.	nongenti.
000.	M or CIO.	mille or mile.

Obs. 1. The declension of unus has been already given (35). Duo and its correlative ambo, 'both,' are thus declined:

N. V.	duo	duæ	duo
G.	duorum	duarum	duorum
D. Ab.	duobus	duabus	duobus
Acc.	duos or duo	duas	duo
	ambo	ambæ	ambo
	amborum	ambarum	amborum
	ambobus	ambabus	ambobus
	ambos or ambo	ambas	ambo.

Tres is declined like the plural of tristis (34).

The other ordinals up to ducenti are undeclined. Mille is undeclined in the singular, but the plural millia is declined as a substantive.

- OBS. 2. For 16, 17, 18, 19 we may also write: decem et sex, d. et septem, d. et octo, d. et novem.
- Obs. 3. The number added to 20, 30, &c., is either prefixed with, or affixed without, et: thus 25 is either quinque et viginti, or viginti quinque. For the last two numbers in the decad, we may subtract, as in the case of duodeviginti and undeviginti; thus 28 and 29 are generally duodetriginta and undetriginta.
- Obs. 4. In combinations with numbers above 100 the smaller number follows with or without et; thus 304 is trecenti et quatuor, or trecentiquatuor.
- Obs. 5. In order to express numbers exceeding 1000, we either prefix the digits to the declinable plural millia, as duo millia, or couple it with the distributives, as bina millia. In this case millia is regarded as a neuter substantive. The poets sometimes prefix the adverb, as bis mille, quinquies mille. And this is always the case in the expression of very high

numbers; thus decies centena millia, or decies centum millia, is 'a million;' vicies centena millia is 'two millions;' bis millies centena millia, is 'two hundred millions,' and so forth. In reckoning with sesterces, the rule is to omit centena millia, and to prefix the numeral adverb alone to the genitive sestertium, i. e. numum (13). Thus decies sestertium is 'two millions of sesterces.'

# (55) (b) Ordinals.

```
primus.
   1st.
   2nd,
                  secundus.
   3rd.
                  tertius.
   4th.
                  quartus.
   5th.
                  quintus.
   6th.
                  sextus.
   7th.
                  septimus.
   8th.
                  octavus.
   9th.
                  กกานล
  10th.
                  decimus.
  11th.
                  undecimus.
  12th,
                  duodecimus.
  13th, 14th, &c. tertius, quartus decimus, &c.
                  vicesimus or vigesimus.
  20th.
                  tricesimus or trigesimus.
  30th.
  40th.
                  quadragesimus.
                  quinquagesimus.
  50th.
  60th.
                  sexagesimus.
  70th.
                  septuagesimus.
  80th,
                  octogesimus.
  90th.
                  nonagesimus.
 100th.
                  centesimus.
                  ducentesimus.
 200th.
 300th, 400th, &c. trecentesimus, quadringentesimus, &c.
1000th.
                  millesimus or milesimus.
```

Obs. 1. The numbers between 13 and 20 may

also be expressed by prefixing decimus with or without et, as: decimus et tertius, or decimus tertius, 'the thirteenth;' and for '18th,' and '19th,' we may say not only octavus decimus, nonus decimus, but also, with the usual subtraction, duodevicesimus, undevicesimus.

- Obs. 2. In adding digits to the tens after 20, we either prefix the smaller number with et or affix it without et. Thus 'the 21st,' is either primus et vicesimus, or vicesimus primus. When alter is used for secundus it is generally connected by et, whether it precedes or follows; thus for 'the 22nd,' we may write either alter et vicesimus, or vicesimus et alter. The cardinals are often used in combination with the tens of the ordinal numbers; thus 'the 21st,' may be expressed by unus et vicesimus. The usual subtraction may take place in the last numbers of the decad: thus 'the 28th,' 'the 39th,' may be written duodetricesimus, undequadragesimus.
- Obs. 3. The numeral adverbs must be used for numbers above 1000, as bis milesimus, 'the two-thousandth.'
- Obs. 4. Fractional parts are expressed by an addition of pars to the ordinal; as: tertia pars, 'the third part;' dua septima, i. e. partes, 'two sevenths.' But  $\frac{1}{2}$  is also pars dimidia, and  $\frac{2}{3}$ ,  $\frac{3}{4}$  may be expressed by dua partes, tres partes, i. e. 'of a whole consisting of four parts.' When a fraction is added to one or more integers, the ordinal of the divided number is merely appended to ses or sesque, where ses is a contracted form of semis, Gr.  $\eta\mu\sigma\nu$ , 'a half;' thus: sesquialter is 'one and a half,' i. e. 'one and the second a half;' sesquipes is 'a foot and a half,' i. e. 'a foot and half a foot;' sestertius scil. numus is 'two ases or libra and the third halved,' which is accordingly written IIS or HS, i. e. dua libra et semis. The as or

libra, i. e. 'pound of copper,' has the following special designations for the 12 unciæ, or ounces, into which it is subdivided, and the same nomenclature is used with reference to every thing, which admits of the same number of fractional parts:

1.	Uncia.	8.	Bes or bessis = $\frac{2}{3}$ .
2.	$Sextans = \frac{I}{6}.$	9.	Dodrans = de - qua-
3.	Quadrans = $\frac{1}{4}$ .		$drans = \frac{3}{4}$ .
4.	$Triens = \frac{1}{3}$ .	10.	Dextans = $de-sex$
<b>5</b> .	Quincunx.		tans; also dec-cunx.
6.	Semis, -issis.	11.	Deunx.
7	Sentuny	12	As

The sum of ten ases, was called denarius sc. numus, of which the sestertius was \( \frac{1}{4} \). It is generally supposed that there is a neuter word, sestertium, denoting 1000 sesterces; but this word, wherever it occurs, is the apocopated gen. plural (13) of sestertius, which, however, forms the plural in -a as well as -i, like locus (51).

Obs. 5. The ordinals are used in a peculiar manner in stating the day of the month, which was reckoned backwards according to the following subdivision. The first of every month was called *Kalendæ*, 'the Calends;' the 5th or 7th was called *Nonæ*, 'the Nones;' and the 13th or 15th was called *Idus*, 'the Ides.' All other days were counted by their distance from the Nones or Ides of the month in question, or from the Calends of the following month, the day *from* which and the day to which they reckoned, being both included in the sum.

The days on which the Nones and Ides fall in particular months may be remembered by the following rhymes:

'The 5th and 13th day divides
A Roman month at the Nones and Ides:

But in March, October, July, May, Count back from the 7th and 15th day.'

Thus, Jan. 2 is the 4th day before the Nones, and is written: a. d. IV. Non. Jan., i.e. ante (diem quartum) Nonas Januarias, where diem quartum is a locative case inserted between the preposition ante and its case, and the whole is regarded as a phrase, which may be governed by another preposition; thus: ex ante diem III. Non. Jun. usque ad pridie Kalendas Septembres, 'from the 3rd day before the Nones of June up to the day before the Calends of September.' From this example it will be observed that the day before the Nones, Ides, and Calends was designated by the adverb pridie, and not by an ordinal number.

Obs. 6. All the ordinals are adjectives of three genders.

# (56) (c) Distributives.

1.	singuli.	40.	quadrageni.
2.	bini.		quinquageni.
3.	terni.		sexageni.
4.	quaterni.	70.	septuageni.
	quini.		octogeni.
	seni.	90.	nonageni.
7.	septeni.	100.	centeni.
8.	octoni.	200.	duceni.
9.	noveni.	<b>300.</b>	treceni.
10.	deni.	<b>400</b> .	quadringeni.
11.	undeni.	<b>500.</b>	quingeni.
12.	duodeni.	600.	sexceni.
13,	14, &c. terni deni,	700.	septingeni.
	quaterni deni, &c.		octogeni.
<b>2</b> 0.	viceni.	900.	nongeni.
<b>30</b> .	triceni.	1000.	singula millia.

OBS. 1. In combinations of the units with num-

bers above 20, the usual plan is to put the lesser number second, without et; as: viceni seni, '26 at a time, by twenty-sixes;' but the smaller number may also be prefixed with or without et; as: quini et viceni, or quini viceni, 'by twenty-fives.' The usual subtraction takes place in the case of 8 and 9: thus, 18, 19 may be written duodeviceni, undeviceni; 28, 29, duodetriceni, undetriceni; and 99 is undeceni. It will be observed that there is no distributive for 1000: but we say singula millia, 'by thousands at a time;' just as we say singulis annis, 'every year;' or singulis diebus, 'day by day.'

Obs. 2. Distributives are used instead of cardinals with words which have no singular; with the exception of singuli, for which uni is used (35, Obs.) Thus we say: una mænia, 'a wall;' binæ litteræ, 'two epistles.' With such words trini is used for terni; as trina castra, 'three camps.'

# (57) (d) Multiplicatives.

Of these words, which are formed by the addition of -plex, -plicis, to the root denoting the number, only the following are in use: simplex, 'simple;' duplex, 'double;' triplex, 'triple;' quadruplex, 'four-fold;' quincuplex, 'five-fold;' septemplex, 'seven-fold;' decemplex, 'ten-fold;' centumplex, 'one hundred-fold.'

### (58) (e) Proportionals.

These words add -plus to the root denoting the number, and are generally used in the neuter gender. The following only are in use: simplus, duplus, triplus, quadruplus, quinquiplus, septuplus, octuplus. There is but a slight difference in meaning between the proportional and the multiplicative; duplex means that

which is double in itself, as duplex ficus, 'a double fig,' i.e. 'two growing together;' but duplum is the double of something else; as pæna dupli, 'a penalty of double the amount.'

# (59) (f) Numeral Adverbs.

	semel, 'once.'	19.	novies decies or un-
2.	bis.		devicies.
3.	ter.	20.	vicies.
4.	quater.	<b>3</b> 0.	tricies.
	quinquies.	40.	quadragies.
	sexies.		quinquagies.
	septies.		sexagies.
	octies.		septuagies.
9.	novies.		octogies.
10.	decies.		nonagies.
11.	undecies.		centies.
	duodecies.		ducenties.
13.	ter decies or trede-		trecenties.
	cies.		quadringenties.
14.	quater decies or		quingenties.
	quartum decies.		sexcenties.
15.	quinquies decies or		septingenties.
	quindecies.		octingenties.
16.	sexies decies or sedecies.		noningenties or non- genties.
17.	septies decies.	1000.	millies.
	octies decies or duo-		

OBS. For intermediate numbers in the tens, the smaller number is either prefixed with et; as: semel et vicies, or affixed with or without et; as: vicies et semel, or vicies semel.

devicies.

#### CHAPTER III.

#### PRONOUNS.

- § 9. Personal Pronouns and their Possessives.
- (60) The personal pronouns, which are used instead of nouns, as the nominative cases or subjects of verbs, are ego, 'I,' for the first person, and tu, 'thou,' for the second. The third person is not expressed in the nominative by a pronoun, but is either omitted, or expressed by a noun substantive. When, however, it is necessary to use a pronoun referring to the nominative case of the verb, we employ the pronoun sui, 'of himself, herself, itself, themselves,' which is called 'a reflective pronoun,' because it refers, or is reflected back for its explanation, to the principal word in the sentence. Thus, if we wish to express in Latin: 'Alexander said that he, namely, Alexander, was the son of Jove,' we must write: Alexander dicebat se Jovis filium esse. These personal pronouns, and their supplement the reflective, have corresponding adjectives in -us, which are called possessives. The personal pronouns have possessives corresponding to their different numbers; but the reflective makes no difference between the singular and plural.
  - (61) First person. Second person. Reflective. Singular. Singular. Singular and Plural. N. tu ) Posses-Posses-Possesego tui sive. mei sive. suisive. tibi ( mihi' meus tuus.8uus. me

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Plural.} & \textbf{Plural.} \\ \textbf{N.} \\ \textbf{A.} \\ \textbf{V.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} nos \\ \textbf{V.} \\ \textbf{G.} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Posses-} \\ \textbf{sive.} \\ \textbf{nostrum} \\ \textbf{D.} \\ \textbf{Ab.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Posses-} \\ \textbf{sive.} \\ \textbf{noster} \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{c} \textbf{vos} \\ \textbf{sive.} \\ \textbf{noster} \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Posses-} \\ \textbf{sive.} \\ \textbf{nosterum} \\ \textbf{vobis} \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Posses-} \\ \textbf{sive.} \\ \textbf{vester.} \end{array}$$

Obs. The genitives mei, and nostri or nostrum, tui, and vestri or vestrum, are really the genitives singular and plural (13) of the possessives meus, noster, and tuus, vester, which are used instead of them in all instances except when a particular emphasis of personality is required; as: si tibi cura mei, sit tibi cura tui, 'if thou hast a care for me, care for thyself.' In the plural gen. nostri, vestri, are used when we speak of the persons as a whole; as: memoria nostri tua, 'your recollection of us,' as a single object of thought: habetis ducem memorem vestri, 'you have a general mindful of you all,' as a body. But we use nostrûm, vestrûm, when we speak of the persons as a collection of separate elements; thus these genitives are used with omnium; as: patria est communis omnium nostrûm parens, 'our native land is the common parent of all of us,' many and separable as we are.

#### § 10. Indicative Pronouns.

(62) The pronouns hic, iste, ille, indicate, as objects, the three persons, 'I,' 'thou,' 'he.' Hic, 'this,' indicates the speaker and all close to him; iste, 'that of yours,' indicates the person addressed and those in his proximity; ille, 'that other,' indicates all distant persons and objects. They correspond respectively to the Greek δδε, οδτος, and ἐκεῦνος, and are thus declined:

-	•
TIT	ı
III.	ı

#### PRONOUNS.

# 

Singular.
-----------

		-	
	M.	F.	N.
N.	hic	hæc	$\mathbf{hoc}$
G.		hujus	
D.		huic	
Α.		hunc	
Ab.	hoc	hâc	hoc
		Plural.	
N.	hi	hæ	hæc
G.	horum	harum	horum
Ď.	norum.	his	norum
Ã.	hos	has	hæc
Ab.	1100	his	11000
		Singular.	
N.	iste	ista	istud
Ġ.	2000	istius	20044
Ď.		isti	
Ã.	istum	istam	istud
Ab.	isto	istâ	isto
		Plural.	
N.	isti	istæ	ista
G.	istorum	istarum	istorum
D.	istorum	istis	15001 UIII
Д. А.	istos	istas	ista
Ab.	15005	istis	1500
AU.		15015	
		Singular.	
N.	ille	illa	illud
G.		illius	
D.		illi	
A.	illum	illam	illud
Ab.	illo	illâ	illo

#### Plural.

	M.	F.	N.
N.	illi	illæ	illa
G.	illorum	illarum	illorum
D.		illis	
A.	illos	illas	illa
A b		illig	

Obs. Ille was anciently written olle, or ollus, -a, -um, from which we have the locative adverb olim, i. e. 'at that time,' whether past (which is the more common meaning) or future. Alius, 'another,' is in constant use, as a by-form of ille, which it resembles in declension (35). The only difference between them is that alius means 'another' indefinitely; ille, 'the' or 'that other' definitely; as: alio die, 'another day,' illo die, 'the other day,' i. e. 'on that day.'

### § 11. Distinctive Pronouns.

(63) The pronoun is and its derivatives i-dem and i-pse (sometimes ipsus) define or distinguish particular objects. The meaning of all three is conveyed by different usages of the Greek airies. Is is either the correlative and antecedent to qui, so that is qui means the particular person who, or it is used as a mere pronoun of reference, like the oblique are in airie person already mentioned means more emphatically means more emphatically man, like and apprecition with and

#### Plural.

	м.	F.	N.
N.	illi	illæ	illa
G.	illorum	illarum	illorum
D.		illis	
A.	illos	illas	illa.
Ab.		illis.	

OBS. Ille was anciently written olle, or ollus, -a, -um, from which we have the locative adverb olim, i. e. 'at that time,' whether past (which is the more common meaning) or future. Alius, 'another,' is in constant use, as a by-form of ille, which it resembles in declension (35). The only difference between them is that alius means 'another' indefinitely; ille, 'the' or 'that other' definitely; as: alio die, 'another day,' illo die, 'the other day,' i. e. 'on that day.'

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Singular.			
	M.	F.	N.
N.	is	ea	id
G.		ejus	
D.		ei	
<b>A</b> .	eum	eam	id
Ab.	eo	eâ	eo
	P	Plural.	
N.	ii (ei)	eæ	ea
G.	eorum	earum	eorum
D. Ab. }		iis (eis)	
A.	eos	eas	ea
-	Sir	ngular.	
N.	$\bar{i}$ dem	$\mathbf{eadem}$	ĭdem
G.		ejusdem	
D.		eīdem	
A.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem
Ab.	${f eodem}$	eâdem	$\mathbf{eodem}$
	P	lural.	
N.	iidem	eædem	e dem
G.	eorundem	earundem	eorundem
$\left\{ egin{array}{l} \mathbf{D.} \\ \mathbf{Ab.} \end{array} \right\}$		iisdem	
A.	eosdem	easdem	eădem.

Ipse is declined like ille and iste, except that in the singular the N. and A. neut. end in -um instead of -ud, as though it were ipsus, ipsa, ipsum.

# § 12. Relative Pronouns and their Correlatives or Antecedents.

(64) The relative qui, 'who,' connects with the indicative or distinctive pronouns, and especially with

is, its regular correlative and antecedent, some fuller description or explanation of the person or thing indicated or intended; as: vidi eum, qui hæc scripsit, 'I saw him, i.e. the man, who wrote these things,' i.e. 'the writer' (τὸν γράψαντα). Qui is thus declined:

		Singular.	
	M.	F.	N.
N.	qui	quæ	quod
G.		cujus	
D.		cui	
A.	quem	quam	quod
Ab.	quo	quâ	quod quo.
		Plural.	
N.	qui	quæ	quæ
G.	quorum	quarum	quorum
D.	•	quibus (queis)	•
<b>A.</b>	quos	quas	quæ
Ab.	_	quibus (queis)	_

- OBS. The G. and D. quojus, quoi are obsolete. The locative quum is only used as a conjunction signifying 'when.'
  - (65) The other correlatives are talis, 'of such a kind,' qualis, 'of which kind' (declined like tristis); tantus, 'so great,' quantus, 'how great' (declined like bonus); tot, 'so many,' quot, 'how many' (undeclined).
  - (66) The affix -cunque may be subjoined to any relative in the sense of our '-ever' or '-soever;' as: qui-cunque, 'whoever,' qualis-cunque, 'of what kind soever,' &c.

### § 13. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

(67) The proper interrogative is quis, 'who?' which may be lengthened by prefix into ecquis, num-

- quis, and by affix into quisnam, numquisnam. But all the relatives may be used as interrogatives. The declension of quis is the same as that of qui in the plural, and merely substitutes quis for qui, and quid for quod in the singular; thus: N. quis, quæ, quid; A. quen, quam, quid. Uter, 'which of the two?' (35) is also used as an interrogative.
- (68) The indefinite pronouns are quis, 'any one,' aliquis, 'some one' in particular, quispiam, 'some one' in general, quisquam, ullus, 'any one at all,' quidam, 'a certain person,' alterüter, 'one or the other' (of two), quisque, 'every one,' unusquisque, 'each individual,' uterque, 'each of two,' also 'both' (uterque frater, 'both brothers,' uterque eorum, 'each of them,' utrique, 'both of them'); quivis, quilibet, 'any one you please' (out of a larger number), utervis, uterlibet, 'any one you please' (of two); with which may be classed the negatives, nemo, neminis, 'no one' (27), nihil, 'nothing,' nullus, 'no, none,' neuter, 'neither' (of two).
- Obs. 1. In all interrogative and indefinite pronouns the form quod is used as an adjective, and the form quid as a substantive; thus we say: aliquod monstrum, 'some monster,' but aliquid monstri, 'something of a monster.' This rule applies to quoddam, quiddam; quodpiam, quidpiam; unumquodque, unumquidque, &c. But quisquam is always substantive, and forms the neuter in quidquam or quicquam. It has neither fem. nor plural, and uses ullus as its adjective.
- Obs. 2. The indefinite quis may be written qui, chiefly in an adjective sense, and only after si, nisi, ne, num; and quis itself is seldom used except in suppositions, as dicat quis, 'suppose some one says,' after the particles just mentioned, and others of a similar meaning, such as: quum, quanto, quo. The fem. sing. or neuter plur. is either quo or qua, but more commonly the latter.

Obs. 3. Ali-quis for alius-quis = ille-quis (35, 62) always indicates 'some one in particular,' though the object is not named: and the English 'some' must be introduced into the translation of all pronominal words to which the syllables ali- are similarly prefixed; thus: ali-auot is 'some few,' ali-quantus, 'of some considerable size, ali-quando, at some time. Consequently, aliquis is only a degree less definite than quidam, which may be explained as certus aliquis, and it is nearly synonymous with quispiam. The word 'any' cannot therefore be used in translating aliquis or the other words compounded with ali-. If by 'any' we mean to include within the range of our choice all the objects referred to, we must use quivis, quilibet. If by 'any' we mean to exclude all the objects specified, in which case we say 'any at all,' we must use quisquam or ullus. Such sentences are in effect negative. These distinctions, which are very important, will be remembered by the following rhymes:

> Aliquis, 'some one,' denotat Quempiam, sed non nominat. Quivis, quilibet, 'any you please,' Continebunt cunctas res. Quisquam, ullus, 'any at all,' Excludunt omne animal.

OBS. 4. In utervis, uterque, &c., uter is declined as above (35), and ullus, nullus, follow the same form of declension. Nemo is a substantive of the masculine gender, and is declined like homo which it includes (27), except that the gen. and abl. are rarely found in the best writers, who substitute nullius and nullo. Nihil occurs only as nom. and accus. But nihili and nihilo from nihilum are sometimes found.

### § 14. Indefinite Relative Pronouns.

(69) Indefinite relatives are those formed by the addition of -cunque to any relative (66), and to the interrogative uter. The reduplicated quisquis is used both relatively and as an adjective signifying 'every.' It is commonly found only in the nom. masc. and in the nom. and accus. neuter quidquid. The phrase cuicuimodi, 'of whatever kind,' has sprung from an abridgement of the gen. of this pronoun coupled with the gen. of modus.

#### CHAPTER IV.

#### VERBS.

### § 15. Regular Verbs.

- (70) A regular verb is that which may be inflected through all its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, persons, and participles.
- (a) There are two voices, the active, in -o (with the exception of sum, 'I am;' inquam, 'I say;') which means that the subject, or nominative does something; the passive, in -or, which expresses that the subject or nominative suffers something, or has something done to him, her, or it, and so becomes an object; thus: amo, 'I am loving' some object, i. e. I am the subject of love; amor, 'I am loved,' or some one loves me, i. e. I am the object of love.

If a verb is active in form, but not in sense, it is called *neuter*; if it is active in sense, but passive in form, it is called *deponent*. If the action of a verb is confined to itself, it is called *intransitive*; if it passes on to another object, it is called a *transitive* verb.

- (b) There are four *moods* or ways (*modi*), in which an action or circumstance may be stated:
- A. The *indicative*, which declares a fact; as: puer scribit, 'the boy is writing.'
- B. The *imperative*, which gives a command; as: scribe, 'write!'
- C. The *subjunctive*, which states a wish or possibility; as: *scribat puer*, 'may the boy write!' or 'the boy may write.'
- D. The *infinitive*, by which the mere action or circumstance is described in a general and indefinite manner; as: *scribere*, 'to write,' or 'writing.'
- (c) There are five tenses or times (tempora), in the indicative and subjunctive:
- I. The *present*, which indicates that the action is going on at the time of speaking; as: amo, 'I am loving.'
- II. The imperfect, which indicates that the action was going on at a time specified; as: amabam, 'I was loving' at some particular time.
- III. The perfect, which declares that the action is past and gone now; as: scripsi, 'I have written,' or 'I wrote.'
- IV. The *pluperfect*, which speaks of an action as done and ended at some specified time now past; as: scripseram, 'I had written' at some specified time.
- V. The future, which indicates some action as coming or about to be; as: amabo, 'I shall love.'
- (d) In every one of these tenses there are two numbers, singular and plural, and in each number three persons, corresponding to the personal and indicative pronouns, ego, nos; tu, vos; hic, hi, iste, isti, ille, illi.

(e) Participles, which are so called from partaking of the nature of the noun and verb, are nominal forms expressing the mere action of the verb like the infinitive mood, for which they are sometimes used.

The participles are either active and present (E. 1.); as: amans, amandus, amabundus, 'loving;' or active and future (E. v.); as: amatūrus, 'about to love;' or

passive and past (E. 111.); as: amātus, 'loved.'

The neuter of the present participle, under the form -ndus, is used to make oblique cases of the infinitive, and is then called a gerund (F.); as: amandum, 'to love;' amandi, 'of loving;' amando, 'in or by loving.'

There are also verbals in -tus, which correspond in meaning to the infinitive; and these, when used in the accusative and ablative in -tum and -tu, are called supines (G.), and correspond in meaning to the gerunds in -dum and -do; as: amatum, 'to love;' amatu, 'in or by loving.' The supine in -tum is used with iri, the infin. of the impersonal itur, 'things are going,' to express the fut. passive of that mood; thus: audio eum monitum iri, 'I hear that things are going to admonish him,' i.e. that he will be admonished.

(71) The conjugations are arrangements of verbs according to the form of the syllable to which the terminations are appended, and, like the declensions, depend upon the distinctions pointed out before (4). There are three vowel conjugations, in -a, -e, -i respectively, and one consonant conjugation, to which the semi-consonant conjugations in -i and -u are properly appended.

# § 16. The Substantive Verb.

### Sum, 'I am.'

(72) All the conjugations make some use of the verb sum, which is thus inflected:

```
A.
```

		I.
		Singular.
1.	sum,	I am
	-	∫ thou art
z.	ĕs,	you are
3.	est,	he is.
		Plural.
1.	sŭmus,	we are
2.	estis,	ye are
3.	sunt,	they are.
		II.
		Singular.
1.	ĕram,	I was
9	ĕras,	∫ thou wert
		) you were
3.	ĕrăt,	he was.
_	_	Plural.
	ĕrāmus,	
2.	ĕrātis,	ye were
3.	erant,	they were.
		III.
		Singular.
1.	fui,	I have been
	fuisti, fuit,	thou hast been
		you have been
3.	Juit,	he has been.
		Plural.
1.	fuimus,	we have been
2.	fuistis,	ye have been
3.	fuērunt fuēre,	or } they have been.

```
IV.
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Singular.

- 1. fuĕram, I had been
- 2. fuĕras, { thou hadst been you had been
- 3. fuĕrat, he had been.

Plural.

- 1. fuerāmus, we had been
- 2. fuerātis, ye had been
- 3. fuĕrant, they had been.

٧.

Singular.

- 1. ĕro, I shall be
- 2. ĕrĭs, { thou wilt be you will be
- 3. ĕrĭt, he will be.

Plural.

- 1. ĕrimus, we shall be
- 2. ĕrĭtĭs, ye will be
- 3. *ĕrunt*, they will be.

В.

Singular.

Plural.

- 2. ĕs, esto, be thou este, estote, be ye
- 3. esto, { be he, or let him be | sunto, { be they, or let them be.

C.

ı.

#### Singular.

- 1. sim (siem, fuam, obsol.) I may be
- 2. sīs, thou mayst be you may be
- 3. sit, he may be

#### Plural.

- 1. sīmus, we may be
- 2. sītis, 3. sint.

ye may be they may be.

#### II.

#### Singular.

- 1. essem, forem, I might be
- 2. esses, fores, { thou mightest be you might be
- 3. esset, foret, he might be.

#### Plural.

- 1. essēmus, fŏrēmus, we might be
- 2. essētis, fŏrētis, ye might be
- 3. essent, forent, they might be.

#### III.

#### Singular.

- 1. fuero, fuerim, I shall or may have been
- 2.  $fu\ddot{e}ris$ ,  $\begin{cases} \text{thou wilt} \\ \text{you will} \end{cases}$  or  $\begin{cases} \text{mayst} \\ \text{may} \end{cases}$  have been
- 3. fuĕrit, he will or may have been.

#### Plural.

- 1. fuĕrīmus\*, we shall or may have been
- 2. fuĕrītis\*, ye will or may have been
- 3. fuerint, they will or may have been.

#### IV.

#### Singular.

- 1. fuissem, I should or might have been
- 2. fuisses, { thou wouldest } or { mightest might } have been
- 3. fuisset, he would or might have been.
- The quantity of -rimus and -ritis in this tense has been a cause of dispute to the old grammarians. The poets make the i common, but usage and philological reasoning are in favour of the long i.

#### Plural.

- 1. fuissēmus, we should )
- 2. fuissētis, you would or might have been.3. fuissent, they would

Singular.

- fŭtūrus sim, I may
   fŭtūrus sis, {thou mayst you may}} be about to be.
- 3. fŭtūrus sit, he may

#### Plural.

- 1. fŭtūri sīmus, we may
- fŭtūri sītis, ye may
   fŭtūri sint, they may

As futurus is a participle, it will, according to the syntax, alter with the gender of the nominative to the verb.

D.

ı.

esse, to be.

III.

fuisse, to have been.

före vel fütūrum esse, to be about to be.

The present participle sens occurs only in some compounds; as: ab-sens, being away, or at a distance, from ab-sum.

The future participle is futurus, 'about to be.'

### § 17. Vowel Conjugations.

(73) The vowel conjugations contain contracted verbs only, and are known by the long  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ , and  $\bar{i}$  respectively of the infinitive; thus we have  $\bar{a}m\bar{a}re$  for ama-ere, monere for mone-ere, and audire for audi-ere. Hence we see that the irregular do, das, dedi, dare, datum does not belong entirely to the vowel verbs, but partly also to the same class as its compounds: condo, condis, condidi, condere; trado, tradis, tradidi, tradere; &c. And similarly we distinguish from this class the semi-consonant verbs in -io, as: fug-io, fugis, fūgi, fugere; rapio, rap-is, rapui, rapere; &c.

### First or -a Conjugation.

(74) Active voice: amo, 'I love' or 'am loving.'

#### Α

1. 'love,' 'do love' or 'am loving.'

 Singular.
 Plural.

 1. ămo
 ămāmus

 2. ămās
 ămātis

 3. ămāt
 ămant.

11. 'did love' or 'was loving.'

amābam amābāmus
 amābas amābātis

3. ămābat ămābant.

# iii. 'loved' or 'have loved.'

1. ămāvi ămāvimus 2. ămāvisti ămāvistis

žmāvisti žmāvistis
 žmāvīt žmāvērunt v. žmāvērč.

# IV. 'had loved.'

amāvēram
 amāvērās
 amāvērātis
 amāvērat
 amāvērant.

2.	Singular. ămābo ămābis ămābit	ămi ămi ămi	lural. ābĭmus ābĭtis ābunt.	
3.	ămāto		anto.	
•		-		
		C.	•	
	. I.	. 'may l	ove.'	
1.	ămem	ăm	ē <b>mus</b>	
	ămēs	ămi		
3.	ămět	ăme	ent.	
	II.	' might	love.'	
	ămārem	ăma	ārēmus	
	ămārēs		ārētis	
3.	ămārĕt	ăm	ārent.	
	111. 'shal	l'or 'ma	y have loved.	
1.	ămāvěro, ămā	věrim ăm	āvĕrīmus	
2.	ămāvěris	ăm	āvĕrītis	
3.	ămāvěrit	ăm	āvĕrint.	
	ıv. 'should	d'or 'mig	ght have love	d.'
1.	ămavissem		āvissēmus	
2.	ămāvisses		āvissētis	
3.	ămāvisset	ăm	āvissent.	
	•		to be loved.	
1.	ămātus, -a, -u		ămāti, -æ,	
2.		sis		sitis
3.		sit		sint.
				42

D.

I. 'to love.'

ămāre.

111. 'to have loved.'

ămāvisse.

v. 'to be about to love.' amaturum, -am, -um, -esse v. fore.

E.

1. amans, 'loving.' v. ămātūrus, 'about to love.'

 $\mathbf{F}$ .

G.

amandum, 'to love.' amatum, 'to love.' amandi, 'of loving.'

amando, 'in' or 'by loving.' amatu, 'in' or 'by loving.'

(75) Passive voice: amor, 'I am being loved.'

### A.

# i. 'am being loved.'

Singular. Plural.

1. ămor ămāmur 2. ămāris v. ămāre ămāmīni

3. ămātur ămāntur.

# 11. 'was being loved.'

ămābar ămābāmur

2. ămābāris v. ămabāre ămābāmĭni

3. ămābātur ămābantur.

# 111. 'was, have been loved.'

Singular.

1. ămātus, -a, -um, sum v. fui\*

2. es v. fuisti

3. est v. fuit.

<sup>\*</sup> The auxiliary fui is rarely, if ever, used by good authors to form the perfect passive, and the same remark applies to fueram.

•	-
TIL	п
IV.	٠
	- 1

#### VERBS.

### Plural.

- 1. ămāti, -æ, -a, sŭmus v. fuĭmus
- 2. estis v. fuistis
- 3. sunt, fuērunt v. -ēre.

### IV. 'had been loved.'

#### Singular.

- ămātus, -a, -um, eram v. fuĕram 1.
- 2. eras v. fuĕras
- 3. erat v. fuĕrat.

#### Plural.

- 1. ămāti, -æ, -a, ĕrāmus v. fuĕrāmus
- 2. ĕrātis v. fuĕrātis
- 3. ĕrant v. fuĕrant.

### 'shall, will be loved.'

Singular. Plural.

- ămābĭmur 1. ămābor
- ămāběris v. ămāběre ămābĭmĭni ămābĭtur āmābuntur.

#### 'be loved.' В.

- ămārĕ, ămātor ămāminī, ămāminor
- 3. ămātor ămantor.

### C.

### 'may be loved.'

- 1. ămer ămēmur
  - ămēris v. ămēre ămēmĭni
  - ămetur ămentur.

### 'might be loved.'

- ămārer ămārēmur
- 1. ămārēris v. -ēre ămārēmini 2.
  - ămārētur ămārentur.

III.	'shall'	or	'may	have	been	loved.'
			Singula	ır.		

- 1. ămātus, -a, -um, sim, fuero, fuerim
- 2. sis, fueris
- 3. sit, fuerit.

#### Plural.

- 1. ămāti, -æ, -a, sīmus, fuĕrīmus
- 2. sītis, fuĕrītis
- 3. sint, fuĕrint.
- Iv. 'should' or 'might have been loved.' Singular.
- 1. ămātus, -a, -um, essem, fuissem
- 2. esses, fuisses
- 3. esset, fuisset.

#### Plural.

- 1. ămāti, -æ, -a, essēmus, fuissēmus
- 2. essētis, fuissētis
- 3. essent, fuissent.

#### D.

### I. 'to be loved.'

### amāri (obsol. amarier).

iii. 'to have been loved.' v. 'to be about to be loved.' ămātum esse v. fuisse. amātum īri.

# E. 111. ămātus, 'loved.'

### (76) Remarks on the -a Conjugation.

(1) Perfect. There are three forms of the perfect active in Latin: (a) the proper or reduplicated perfect; as dĕdi from do, stĕti from sto; (β) the aorist-perfect in -si; as scripsi from scribo; (γ) the composite

perfect, which adds -vi or -ui, for fui; as ama-vi for ama-fui from amo. The only verbs of the -a conjugation, which take the proper perfect, are do and sto. mentioned above. Do, which is otherwise irregular, exhibits the following forms: A. I. do, das, dat, damus, dătis, dant, 11. dăbam, v. dăbo, B. da, dăto, C. 1. dem, des, det, dēmus, dētis, dent, 11. dărem, D. dăre, supine dătum. All other -a verbs take the composite perfect from fui, which is written -vi if the a of the root is retained, and -ui if the a is elided; and the v is absorbed or represented only by a lengthening of the first vowel of the verb, if in the latter case it comes in contact with another v. In the pluperfect, ave- or avimay be contracted into  $\hat{a}$ ; as amarat, amasset, for amaverat, amavisset. The following are the only verbs which elide the characteristic -a: crepo, crepui, 'rattle: cubo, cubui, 'lie;' domo, domui, 'tame;' frico, fricui, 'rub;' mico, micui, 'move rapidly;' neco, necui, 'kill;' plico, plicui, 'fold;' seco, secui, 'cut;' sono, sonui, 'sound;' tono, tonui, 'thunder;' veto, vetui, 'forbid;' and their compounds. In some of these verbs the a is occasionally retained in the perfect. Thus applico, complico, implico have also the perfects applicavi, &c. The simple verb neco has generally the perfect necavi, though its compounds, as eneco, enecui, most frequently omit the characteristic. The only compound of mico, which retains the form in -avi, is dimico, 'I fight.' In the verbs juvo, 'I assist;' lavo, 'I wash,' the affix of the perfect is represented only by a lengthening of the root syllable; thus we have jūvi for juv-ui and lavi for lav-ui. Verbs derived from adjectives in -plex, as duplico from duplex, and supplico from supplex, must be carefully distinguished from the compounds of plico. These verbs always retain their characteristic in the perfect, which is duplicavi, supplicavi, &c.

(2) Supine and passive participle. Verbs, which omit the characteristic a in the perfect, generally omit it in the supines, or rather substitute for it a short i. Thus cubo makes cubitum, domo, domitum, plico, plicitum, &c. But the compounds of plico sometimes retain a in the supine as they do in the perfect: thus we have applicatum, complicatum, explicatum as well as applicitum, &c. Frico, neco, and seco omit even the i, and their supines are frictum, nectum, sectum, though fricatum, necatum also occur. The same is the case with jūvo, jūvi, jūtum; lāvo, lāvi, lautum or lōtum. Poto, although it has a regular perfect, has both potatum and potum in the supine, and its participle is potus, which means both 'being drunk' and 'having drunk.' Mico has no supine, and its compounds always retain the characteristic in the supine; as: emicatum, dimicātum.

### Second or -e Conjugation.

# (77) Active voice: moneo, 'I put in mind.'

Sinonlar

# A.

Plural.

	Dingulat.	* 101 mm
1.	moneo	monēmu <b>s</b>
2.	monēs	monētis
3.	monet	monent.
		II.
1.	monēbam	monēbāmus
	monēbas	monēbātis
3.	monebas monebat	monebant.
υ.	monenac	monepant.
		III.
1.	monui	monuĭmus
2.	monuisti	monuistis
3.	monuit	monuērunt v. monuēr
υ.	MICHAIL	monacian of monaci

		IV.
,	Singular.	Plural.
1.		monuerāmus
2.		monuerātis
3.	monuĕrat	monuĕrant.
		<b>v.</b>
	monēbo	monēbĭmus
	monēbis	monēbĭtis
3.	monēbit	monēbunt.
		В.
2.	monē, monēto	monēte, monētēte
3.	monēto	monento.
		<b>C.</b>
		1.
	moneam	moneāmus
2.	moneas	moneātis
3.	moneat	moneant.
		II.
1.	monērem	monērēmus
	monēres	monērētis
3.	monēret	monērent.
		ш.
1	monuĕro, monuĕrim	
2.		monuĕrītis
3.	monuerit	monuĕrunt.
	:	IV.
1.	monuissem	monuissēmus
2.	monuisses	monuissētis
3.	monuisset	monuissent.

58			

Singular.

CH.

VERBS.

**v.** 

1. monitūrus, -a, -um, sim

monitūri, -æ, -a, sīmus

Plural.

2. sis

sītis sint.

3. sit

D.

1. monēre. 111. monuisse. v. moniturum esse v. fore.

E.

i. monens.

monendo

v. monitūrus.

F. monendum monendi G. monĭtum

monĭtu.

(78) Passive voice: moneor, 'I am being put in mind.'

Α.

ı.

1. moneor

monēmur monēmini

2. monēris v. monēre 3. monētur

monentur.

II.

1. monēbar

monēbāmur

2. monēbāris v. monēbāre

monēbāmĭni

3. monēbātur

monēbantur.

III.

1. monitūs, -a, -um, sum

monĭti, -æ, -a, sumus

2.

estis

3.

est

sunt.

1. 2. 3.		ras rat	Plural. monĭti, -æ, -a, eramus eratis erant.
_	_	v.	
1. 2. 3.	monēbor monēbĕris (-e) monēbĭtur		monēbĭmur monēbĭmĭni monēbuntur.
		В.	
2. 3.	monēre, monētor monētor		monēmini, monēminor monentor.
		C.	
		ı.	
1.	monear		moneāmur
2.			moneāmini
3.	moneātur `		moneantur.
		II.	
٦.	monērer		monērēmur
2.	monērēris (-e)		monērēmini
3.	monērētur		monērentur.
		111.	
	Singular.		•
1.	monitus, -a, -um, si	m, fuĕro	, fuĕrim
2.		s, fuĕris	
3.	si	t, fuĕrit	•
	Plural.		
1.	monĭti, -æ, -a, sīmu	s, fuĕrīn	nus
2.	sītis,	fuĕrītis	<b>,</b>
3.		fuĕrint.	
	•		

#### IV.

#### Singular.

- monitus, -a, um, essem, fuissem
   esses, fuisses
- 3. esset, fuisset.

#### Plural.

- 1. moniti, -æ, -a, essēmus, fuissēmus
- 2. essētis, fuissētis
- 3. essent, fuissent.

#### D.

1. monēri (obs. monerier). 111. monītum, -am, -um, esse. v. monītum iri. E. 111. monītus.

### (79) Remarks on the -e Conjugation.

(1) Perfect. The only verbs of this conjugation, which take the proper or reduplicated perfect, are mordeo, 'I bite,' momordi; pendeo, 'I am hanging,' pependi; tondeo, 'I shear,' totondi; spondeo, 'I promise, spopondi. Most of the -e verbs elide this characteristic in the perfect, and take the composite form (γ) in -ui, as mon-eo, mon-ui, hab-eo, hab-ui. The only verbs, which form the perfect in e-vi, are deleo, 'I destroy,' delēvi; fleo, 'I weep,' flēvi; neo, 'I spin,' nēvi; the compounds of oleo, 'I grow,' as ab-oleo, abolēvi, ad-oleo, ad-olevi; the compounds of pleo, 'I fill,' as compleo, complēvi, impleo, implēvi; vieo, 'I bind with twigs, viēvi. Some of the verbs which omit the characteristic -e take the aorist-perfect in -si (\$), which, as we shall see, is the usual form with consonant-verbs. The only labial verb which exhibits this perfect is jubeo, which has jussi for jub-si; but sorbeo may have sorpsi. as well as its more common perfect sorbui. The following guttural verbs have the perfect in -si, which, in combination with the preceding letter, becomes -xi: augeo, 'I increase,' auxi; frigeo, 'I freeze,' frixi; luceo, 'I shine,' luxi: lugeo, 'I bewail,' luxi; to which must be added conniveo for conniqueo, 'I wink,' connixi, also connivi, as in caveo mentioned below. If the liquid ! or r precedes the guttural, this is omitted before -si: as in algeo, 'I am cold,' alsi; fulgeo, 'I shine,' fulsi; indulgeo, 'I indulge,' indulsi; mulceo, 'I soothe,' mulsi: mulgeo, 'I milk,' mulsi; tergeo, 'I wipe,' tersi; torqueo, 'I twist,' torsi; turgeo, 'I swell,' tursi; urgeo, 'I press,' ursi. When a dental precedes the -e, it is omitted before -si, as in ardeo, 'I burn,' arsi; rideo, 'I laugh,' risi; suadeo, 'I advise,' suasi. The same rule applies to the r of hæreo, 'I stick,' perf. hæsi; but maneo, 'I remain,' makes mansi. And sedeo, 'I sit, video, 'I see,' merely add i and lengthen the first syllable, the perfects being sēdi, vīdi; and the same absorption has really taken place in prandeo, 'I dine,' perf. prandi; strideo, 'I hiss,' perf. strīdi; where the root vowel is already long by position or by nature. The same is generally the case when the root ends with v; thus we have: caveo, 'I take care,' cāvi; faveo, 'I am favourable,' favi; foveo, 'I make warm, cherish,' fovi; moveo, 'I move,' movi; paveo, 'I dread,' pavi; voveo, 'I vow,' vovi. The compounds of movi sometimes syncopate vi-, as in commossem for commovissem. But ferveo, 'I glow,' makes fervui as well as fervi, and conniveo, as we have seen, makes connixi as well as connīvi.

(2) Supine and passive participle. The characteristic -e is retained only in those verbs which exhibit it in the perfect; as: deleo,  $del\bar{e}vi$ ,  $del\bar{e}tum$ : even in one of these it is elided; for we have adoleo,  $adol\bar{e}vi$ , adultum, and another compound of oleo, namely, aboleo, has abolitum, substituting a short i for the  $\bar{e}$ , which is generally the case in verbs which form the perfect in -ui; thus we have moneo, monui, monitum; habeo, habitum, &c. The deponent tueor, 'I protect,'

sometimes forms its participle tutus as well as tuitus, and the shorter form is always adopted, when the participle is used as an adjective, and tutus, 'protected,' means 'safe,' Guttural verbs often form the supine and participle passive in ct; thus, from augeo, doceo, lugeo, we have auctus, doctus, luctus. If l or r precedes the guttural, the latter is omitted and the t changed into s; thus, from mulceo, 'I soothe,' mulgeo, 'I milk,' tergeo, 'I wipe,' we have mulsus and tersus. But the t is retained in indulgeo and torqueo, which make indultus and tortus. All other verbs of this kind want the supine and passive participle. Misceo, 'I mix,' makes both mistus and mixtus. Ardeo, fateor, mordeo, pendeo, sedeo, suadeo, video, have for their supines, arsum, fassum, morsum, pensum, sessum, suasum, visum. Teneo gives tentum, misereor both misertus and miseritus, torreo, tostum; caveo, moveo, voveo, cautum, motum, votum; censeo has censum, but recenseo makes recensitum as well as recensum. Hæreo has only hæsum, maneo, mansum, and jubeo, jussum. Cieo, 'to stir up,' makes citum, to be distinguished from the synonymous citum, which belongs to cio. The deponent reor, 'I think,' has the irregular form rătus, whence ratio; but the compound ir ritus = non ratus, 'not ratified,' 'of no effect,' follows the model of monitus.

## Third or -i Conjugation.

(80) Active voice: audio, 'I hear.'

#### Α.

Singular.	Plural.
audio	audīmus
audīs	audītis

audiunt.

4	
Singular.  1. audiēbam  2. audiēbas  3. audiēbat	11. Plurai. audiēbāmus audiēbātis audiēbant.
1. audīvi	audīvimus
2. audīvisti	audīvistis
3. audīvit	audīvērunt $v$ . audīvēre.
	IV.
1. audīveram	audīverāmus
2. audīveras	audīverātis
3. audīverat	audīverant.
	v.
73:	audiēmus
1. audiam 2. audies	audiētis
3. audiet	audient.
o. addict	addicit.
2. audī, audīto 3. audīto	B. audīte, audītōte audiunto.
	<b>C.</b>
	I.
1. audiam	audiāmus
2. audias	audiātis
3. audiat	audiant.
O. Guulav	
	п.
1. audīrem	audīrēmus
2. audīres	audīrētis
3. audīret	audirent.

3. audiēbātur

III. Singular. Plural. 1. audīvero, audīverim audīvērīmus andīverītis 2. audīvēris audīvērint. 3. audīverit IV. 1. audīvissem andīvissēmus audīvissētis 2. andīvisses 3. andīvisset audīvissent. 1. audītūrus, -a, -um, sim audītūri, -æ. -a. simus 2. sis sit sint. 3. D. 1. audīre. 111. audīvisse. v. auditūrum esse v. fore. E. v. auditūrus. 1. audiens. G. F. audiendum audītum audiendi audiendo. audītu. (81) Passive voice: audior, 'I am being heard.' Α. I. 1. audior audīmur audīmĭni 2. audīris (-e) 3. audītur audiuntur. II. 1. audiēbar audiebāmur 2. audiēbāris audiēbāmini

audiēbantur.

III.

Singular.

Plural.

1. audītus, -a, -um, sum audīti, -æ, -a, sumus 2. es

estis

3.

est

sunt.

ıv.

1. audītus, -a, -um, eram

2.

eras

audīti, -æ, -a, erāmus erātis

3.

erat

erant.

v.

1. audiar

2. audiēris (-e)

3. audiētur

audiēmur audiēmĭni

audientur.

В.

2. audīre, audītor

3. audītor

audīmĭni, audīmĭnor audiuntor.

C.

I.

1. audiar

2. audiāris (-e)

3. audiātur

audiāmur audiāmĭni

audiantur.

II.

1. audīrer

3. audīrētur

2. audīrēris (-e)

audīrēmur audīrēmĭni

audirentur.

III.

Singular.

1. audītus, -a, -um, sim, fuero, fuerim

sis, fueris 2.

3. sit, fuerit.

#### Plural.

- 1. audīti, -æ, -a, sīmus, fuerīmus
- 2. sītis, fuĕrītis
- 3. sint, fuĕrint.

#### IV.

#### Singular.

- 1. audītus, -a, -um, essem, fuissem
- 2. esses, fuisses
- 3. esset, fuisset.

#### Plural.

- 1. audīti, -æ, -a, essēmus, fuissēmus
- 2. essētis, fuissētis
- 3. essent, fuissent.

### D.

- 1. audīri (obs. audīrier). 111. audītum, -am, -um, esse. v. audītum iri. E. 111. audītus.
  - (82) Remarks on the -i Conjugation.
- (1) Imperfect. The imperfect almost always adds  $-\bar{e}bam$ , &c. to the characteristic i, but the poets contract ie into i: thus Virgil has  $len\bar{i}bat$  from lenio,  $pol\bar{i}bant$  from polio, &c.; and eo, queo, as we shall see, have always  $\bar{i}bam$ ,  $qu\bar{i}bam$ .
- (2) Perfect. The perfect is generally in -ivi, which may be shortened into ii, and even contracted in the pluperfect subjunctive into i: thus we may have not only audivit, audivissent, but also audit and audissent. The aorist perfect in -si is not uncommon, especially with guttural verbs; thus amicio, 'I clothe,' sancio, 'I ordain,' vincio, 'I bind,' make amixi, sanxi and vinxi; but amicio has also amicui and sancio has sometimes sancīvi. If l or r precedes the guttural, it

produces the same effect as in the -e conjugation, for the guttural is omitted before -si; thus farcio, 'I stuff,' fulcio, 'I support,' sarcio, 'I mend,' make farsi, fulsi, sarsi. The labial verbs sepio, 'I hedge in,' cambio, 'I exchange,' have the perfects sepsi, campsi. The dental sentio, 'I feel,' makes sensi. And of the liquid verbs haurio makes hausi (like hæreo), aperio, 'I open,' and operio, 'I cover,' make aperui, operui; salio, 'I leap,' makes salui and sometimes salii; sarrio, 'I weed corn with a hook,' sarrīvi and sarrui, and vēnio, 'I come,' perf. vēni, is the only verb of this class, which represents the absorbed affix of the perfect by a lengthening of the root syllable.

- (3) Future. In the -i conjugation, as in the consonant-verbs, the only future in common use is a stronger form of the present subjunctive, to which it corresponds in the first person singular. The true form in -bo is obsolete except in eo and queo.
- (4) Supine and passive participle. The regular supine and passive participle retain the characteristic i, as in auditus, and, of course, when this is the root vowel, as in accitus from accio, to be distinguished from concitus, incitus, percitus, which belong to concieo, The i is omitted in those cases in incieo, percieo. which it is omitted in the perfect; thus we have: amicio, amixi, amictus; sancio, sanxi, sanctus, (but sancīvi, sancītus); vincio, vinxi, vinctus. Similarly farcio, farsi, fartus (also farsus); fulcio, fulsi, fultus; sarcio, sarsi, sartus. Verbs with r before the characteristic i omit the latter before the t; thus we have apertus, compertus, expertus, opertus, ortus, repertus from aperio, comperio, experior, operio, orior, reperio. But haurio makes haustus, hausum, and hausurus. Salio and venio make saltus and ventus; sentio has sensus, and sepelio forms its participle sepultus.
  - (83) The verb eo, 'I go,' belongs to the -i conju-

gation, but changes i into e before a, o, u. It is inflected thus:

- A. I. eo, is, it, īmus, ītis, eunt.
  - II. ibam, -as, -at, -amus, -atis, -ant.
  - III. īvi (in compounds ii), īvisti, &c.
  - IV. iveram, iveras, &c. (in compounds ieram.)
  - v. ībo, ībis, &c.
- B. i. īto; īto; īte, ītōte, eunto.
- C. I. eam, eas, eat, &c.
  - 11. īrem, īres, īret, &c.
  - ivero or iverim, iveris, &c. (in compounds iero, &c.)
  - IV. *īvissem* (in compounds iissem or issem.)
- D. ire. Part. iens, gen. euntis. Fut. itūrus. Gerund eundum, &c. Supine itum.

Eo has no passive except when used as an impersonal; as: itur a me, 'I go,' and in the infinitive iri, when, in conjunction with the supine of a verb, it forms the future passive, as amatum iri, 'to be about to be loved,' (70.) Some of its compounds, however, are regularly formed in the passive; as prætereor, 'I am passed by,' adeor, 'I am approached,' &c. Queo, 'I can,' and nequeo, 'I am unable,' are inflected like eo.

### § 18. Fourth or Consonant Conjugation.

(84) Regular consonant verbs are divided into different classes according to the nature of the consonant which is their characteristic. Thus there are mute verbs and liquid verbs; and the mute verbs are either labial, guttural or dental: and to these must be added the semi-consonantal verbs in i and u. Accordingly we have the following arrangement:

### A. Mute Verbs:

(a) Labial verbs; as: scribo, 'I write,' scripsi, scriptum.

Guttural verbs; as: dico, 'I speak,' dixi, (b)

dictum.

(c) Dental verbs; as: ludo, 'I play,' lusi, lusum.

# B. Liquid Verbs:

L verbs; as: colo, 'I till,' colui, cultum.

M verbs; as: gemo, 'I groan,' gemui, gemitum.
N verbs; as: cano, 'I sing,' cecini, cantum.
R verbs; as: gero, 'I carry,' gessi, gestum.
S verbs; as: texo, 'I weave,' texui, textum.

### C. Semi-consonantal Verbs:

I verbs; as: facio, 'I make,' feci, factum.

U verbs; as: ruo, 'I throw down,' rui, ruitum or rŭtum.

We will take the first of these, as a specimen of the regular conjugation of verbs which form their infinitive in -ĕre.

# (85) Active voice: scribo, 'I am writing.'

Α.

I.

Singular. Plural. 1. scribo scrībimus scribis scrībitis scribit 3. scribunt.

II.

1. scrībēbam scrībēbāmus 2. scrībēbas scrībēbātis scrībēbat scrībēbant. 3.

	II	Τ.
	Singular.	Plural.
٦.	scripsi	scripsĭmus
2.	scripsisti	scripsistis
3	scripsit	scripsērunt v. scripsēre.
υ.	por 1 por 0	scripscrum v. scripscre.
	יו	<b>7.</b>
1.	scripsĕram	scripsĕrāmus
2.	scripsĕras	scripsĕrātis
3.	scripsĕras scripsĕrat	scripsĕrant.
		·.
4		
	scribam	scribēmus
	scribes	scrībētis
3.	scribet	scrībent.
	-	
	B	<b>5.</b>
2.	scrībe, scribĭto	scribĭte, scrībitote
3.	scribĭto	scribunto.
	C	<b>!.</b>
	I	
1.	scrībam	scrībāmus
	scrības	scrībātis
	scrībat	scrībant.
٠.	2021240	Sollowine.
	1	ι.
1.	<b>s</b> crībĕrem	scrībĕrēmus
2.	scrībĕres	scrībĕrētis
	scrībĕret	scribĕrent.
	II	ī.
1.	scripsĕro, scripsĕrim	scripsĕrīmus
2.	scripsĕris	scripsĕrītis
3.	scripsĕrit	scripsĕrint.
v.	por rhacrin	arribacrine

		~
tv	•	
• •	٠	•

#### VERBS.

71

	7	,	
ı			

Singular. scripsissem

scripsisses 2.

scripsisset 3.

Plural.

scripsissēmus scripsissētis

scripsissent.

v.

scripturus, -a, -um, sim 2. sis

sit

3.

scripturi, -æ, -a, simus

sint.

D.

1. scriběre. 111. scripsisse. v. scriptūrum esse.

E.

1. scribens.

v. scripturus.

F.

scribendum scribendi scribendo.

G.

scriptum

scriptu.

Passive voice: scribor, 'I am being written.'

J.

scrībor

2. scrībĕris (-e) scrībĭtur

scrībĭmur scrībĭmĭni

scribuntur.

II.

scrībēbar

scrībēbāmur 2. scrībebāris (-e)

3. scrībēbātur scrībēbāmĭni scrībēbantur. III.

		****			
	Singular.	Plural.			
1.	scriptus, -a, -um, su				
2.	es	estis			
3.	est	sunt.			
		***			
4		IV.			
1. 2.	scriptus, -a, -um, era				
z, 3.	era				
<b>J</b> .	era	t erant.			
<b>v.</b>					
1.	scribar	scribēmur			
	scribēris (-e)	scribēmĭni			
3.	scribētur	scribentur.			
		В.			
_	-10 -10.				
2.	scrīběre, scrībitor	scrībimini, scrībiminor			
3.	scrībĭtor	scribuntor.			
		C.			
		I			
1.	scribar	scribāmur			
2.		scribāmĭni			
3.	scribātur	scribantur.			
		11.			
1.	scrībĕrer	scrībĕrēmur			
	scrībĕrēris (-e)	scrībĕrēmĭni			
3.	scrībĕrētur	scrībĕrentur.			
	,	III.			
		Singular.			
1. scriptus, -a, -um, sim, fuero, fuerim					
	2. 3.	sis, fueris			
	J.	sit, fuerit.			

#### Plural.

- 1. scripti, -æ, -a, simus, fuerīmus
- 2. sitis, fuerītis
- 3. sint, fuerint.

# IV.

### Singular.

- 1. scriptus, -a, -um, essem, fuissem
- 2. esses, fuisses
- 3. esset, fuisset.

#### Plural.

- 1. scripti, -æ, -a, essemus, fuissēmus
- 2. essetis, fuissētis
- 3. essent, fuissent.

### D.

1. scribi (obs. scribier). 111. scriptum, -am, -um, esse. v. scriptum iri. E. 111. scriptus.

### Remarks on the Consonant Conjugation.

# A. Mute Verbs.

# (86) (a) Labial Verbs.

Perfect. The form is generally the aorist (β) in -si, before which b is changed into p; thus we have carpo, 'I pluck,' carpsi; nubo, 'I put on the veil,' nupsi. Some verbs take the composite form in -ui; as: cumbo, 'I lie down,' cubui; strepo, 'I make a noise,' strepui. Some verbs merely add i to the root, which if possible is lengthened; as: lambo, 'I lick,' lambi; rumpo, 'I break,' rūpi; scabo, 'I scratch,' scābi. Bibo, 'I drink,' perf. bibi, has lost its reduplication.

(2) Supine and passive participle. Generally the t is immediately attached to the p of the perfect; thus we have nubo, nuptum, rumpo, ruptum. But bibo, cumbo, lambo, strepo insert a short i in bibitum, cubitum, &c. And the deponent  $l\bar{a}bor$ , 'I glide down,' makes the participle lapsus.

### (87) (b) Guttural Verbs.

(1) Perfect. The general form of the perfect is that in -si, and the -s combined with the preceding guttural becomes -x. Thus we have dico, 'I say,' dixi; cingo, 'I gird,' cinxi; coquo, 'I cook,' coxi; distinguo, 'I distinguish,' distinxi. The same rule applies when the guttural is reduced to a mere aspirate, and when qu is represented by v or u only; thus we have: veho, 'I carry,' vexi; traho, 'I draw,' traxi; vivo for viquo, 'I live,' vixi; fluo for fluquo, 'I flow,' fluxi; struo for struquo, 'I build,' struxi; and the deponent fruor, 'I enjoy,' fructus sum. If r precedes the characteristic, the latter is omitted before -si: thus mergo, 'I dip,' makes mersi; parco, 'I save up,' parsi; spargo, 'I scatter,' sparsi. In the sense of 'I spare,' parco makes peperci. The perfect affix is sometimes represented by a mere lengthening of the root vowel, which may be changed from a to e, and in this case an euphonic n may be omitted. Thus we have ago, 'I drive,' ēgi; frango, 'I break,' frēgi; linquo, 'I leave,' līqui; vinco, 'I conquer,' vīci; lego, 'I read,' lēgi. But three compounds of lego take the form in -si; thus we have diligo, 'I love,' dilexi; intelligo, 'I understand, 'intellexi; negligo, 'I neglect,' neglexi. Pungo, 'I pierce,' has pupugi, but its compounds, as interpungo, 'I distinguish with points,' take the form in -si, as interpunxi. Tango, 'I touch,' makes tetigi, but its compounds omit the reduplication; thus we have contingo, contigi. Pango, 'I fix,' makes panxi, and in the compounds -pēgi: but in the sense 'I bargain,' (for which paciscor is generally used in the present) we have the perfect pepigi.

(2) Supine and passive participle. As a general rule -t is subjoined to the guttural, which is changed into c; thus we have coctum from coquo, lectum from lego, &c. But mergo, parco, spargo omit the guttural, as in the perfect, and make mersum, parsum, sparsum: and the euphonic n is omitted in fractus, lictus, pactus, victus, from frango, &c. The deponents loquor and sequor vocalize the u in the participles locutus, secutus, and also in secundus, 'following,' for sequendus.

## (88) (c) Dental Verbs.

(1) Perfect. The usual form is that in -si, before which the dental is always omitted. Thus, claudo, 'I shut, makes clausi; divido, 'I divide,' divisi; and even mitto, 'I send,' mīsi. Cedo, 'I yield,' and quatio, 'I shake,' retain the dental under the form of s in their perfects cessi, quassi (in compounds -cutio, -cussi). the characteristic is ct, the perfect follows the rule of the guttural verbs; thus flecto, 'I bend,' necto, 'I knit,' pecto, 'I comb,' make flexi, nexi, pexi. Cado, 'I fall,' cædo, 'I cut,' take the reduplicated perfect, cecidi and cecīdi, the reduplication being as usual omitted in the compounds, as incido, 'I fall upon,' incidi; concido, 'I cut to pieces,' concidi. The same rule applies to some verbs which take an euphonic n before d in the present; as pendo, 'I weigh,' pependi; tendo, 'I stretch out, 'tetendi; tundo, 'I beat,' tutudi. But findo, 'I split,' makes fidi; scindo, 'I cut, 'scidi, without any reduplication even in the uncompounded verbs; and the same is the case with accendo, 'I inflame,' mando, 'I chew,' offendo, 'I stumble against,' prehendo, 'I seize,' verto, 'I turn,' which have for their perfects the simple forms accendi, mandi, offendi, prehendi, verti, Edo, 'I eat,' fodio, 'I

- dig,' and fundo, 'I pour out,' have ēdi, fodi, fūdi: and oūdo, 'I forge,' sīdo, 'I sit down,' strīdo, 'I hiss,' have cūdi, sīdi, strīdi. Fido, 'I trust,' has no active perfect, but uses the passive fisus sum. The only dental verbs which take the composite perfect form -fui are frendo, 'I gnash with the teeth,' sterto, 'I snore,' which make frendui and stertui; and meto, 'I reap,' peto, 'I seek,' rudo, 'I bray,' which have the elongated forms messui, petīvi, rudīvi.
- (2) Supine and passive participle. The t of the affix is generally changed into s; thus from ludo we have lusum; and if c precedes the characteristic, it becomes x; thus from flecto we have flexum. The following have a double s in the supine: cedo, cessum; findo, fissum; fodio, fossum; meto, messum; mitto, missum; quatio, quassum; scindo, scissum; sido, sessum, to which may be added the deponents gradior, 'I go,' gressum, and patior, 'I suffer,' passum. But tendo has tentus as well as tensus, comedo has comestus as well as comesus, and peto and rudo have the elongated forms petītus, rudītus.

# B. Liquid Verbs.

### (89) L Verbs.

- (1) Perfect. The usual form is -ui, as alo, 'I rear,' alui. Some merely add i, as vello, 'I pull,' velli; but the compounds of this verb retain the -si, as convello, convulsi. Some few take the proper or reduplicated perfect, as fallo, 'I deceive,' fefelli; pello, 'I drive,' pepüli; and tollo, 'I take up,' omits the reduplication in its perfect tüli for tetüli.
- (2) Supines. The usual form is -t appended to the l; as: alo, altum; colo, cultum. The former verb has also alitum, and this is the case with molo, 'I grind,' molitum. Verbs with a double l generally

change t into s, as fallo, falsum; pello, pulsum; percello, perculsus; but excello, excelsus. Tollo has the singular form latus for tlatus or toltus.

### (90) M Verbs.

- (1) Perfect. Generally the perfect is formed in -ui; as: tremo, 'I tremble,' tremui. But emo, 'I take up,' thence 'I buy,' with its compounds adimo, 'I take away,' coemo, 'I buy up,' interimo, 'I take out of the way, i. e. destroy,' form the perfect by a lengthening of the root vowel; thus: ēmi, adēmi, coēmi, interēmi: and when the preposition in the compound coalesces with the first syllable of emo, the perfect is formed in -si, the liquid m being followed by the corresponding mute p; thus we have como = coemo, 'I take and put together' (the hair), compsi; dēmo = deemo, 'I take away from,' dempsi; prōmo = pro-emo, 'I take out' (from a store), prompsi; sumo = sub-emo, 'I take up,' sumpsi. Premo, 'I press,' makes pressi, the liquid m being assimilated.
- (2) Supines and passive participles. Perfects in -ui have a supine in -itum; as gemo, gemui, gemitum. All others have the supine -ptum; as emo, emptum; except premo, pressi, which makes pressum.

### (91) N Verbs.

There are only two n verbs: the reduplicated gigno, 'I beget,' 'bring into being,' 'cause to be,' which makes genui, genitum; and cano, 'I sing,' which makes cĕcini, cantum.

### (92) R Verbs.

Curro, 'I run,' makes căcurri, cursum; gero, 'I carry,' and uro, 'I burn,' make gessi, gestum and ussi, ustum. Sero, 'I place in rows,' makes serui, sertum;

and verro, 'I sweep,' makes verri, versum. The deponent queror, 'I complain,' makes questus.

### (93) S Verbs.

- Depso, 'I knead,' makes depsui, depstum; texo, 'I weave,' texui, textum, and so all the others except viso, 'I visit,' which makes visi.

### C. Semi-consonantal Verbs.

## (94) *I* Verbs.

Many of these have been already mentioned under the characteristic which precedes the i. They are such as: allicio, 'I entice' (and other compounds of lacio), allexi, allectum; capio, 'I take,' cēpi, captum; cupio, 'I desire,' cupīvi, cupītum; facio, 'I make,' fēci, factum; fŏdio, 'I dig,' fōdi, fossum; fŭgio, 'I flee,' fūgi, fugītum; gradior, 'I go,' gressus; jacio, 'I throw,' jēci, jactum; morior, 'I am dying,' mortuus; pario, 'I bring forth,' pēpēri, partum; patior, 'I suffer,' passus; quatio, 'I shake,' quassus; rapio, 'I snatch,' rapui, raptum; sapio, 'I have a taste,' hence 'I have sense, I am wise,' sapui (no supine); specio, 'I see' (obsol.), spexi, spectum (hence aspicio, conspicio, &c.)

### (95) *U* Verbs.

Many of these verbs belong to the guttural class, and have been discussed in their proper place. Others, as juvo, caveo, have a or e after their characteristic v, and therefore belong to the vowel-verbs. Ruo, 'I overthrow,' makes rui, ruitum or rutum; minuo, 'I break into small pieces,' makes minui, minutum. Compounds of nuo, 'I nod,' as abnuo, 'I refuse,' i. e. 'express dissent by nodding,' make abnui, abnuitum, &c. Arguo, 'I show,' makes argui, argūtum.

### § 19. Irregular Verbs.

(96) Irregularities, in the inflexion of verbs through their moods and tenses, arise either from the use of some strengthening affix in the present tense, which is neglected in the perfect, or from the practice of making up the tenses by forms derived from different, but synonymous roots, or from some syncope or abbreviation in the inflexions themselves.

### A. Additions to the Present Tense.

(97) (a) N added. Those in which an euphonic n (or m before a labial) is inserted before the characteristic of the verb, often retain this letter in the perfect; as in jungo, root jug-, junxi; fungor, root fug-, functus sum. Others omit it, as rumpo, rupi. These verbs have been discussed under their proper characteristics. When the inserted n is added to the root, it is always omitted in the perfect and supine; thus we have cerno, 'I separate,' crēvi, certum; sperno, 'I despise,' sprēvi, sprētum; sterno, 'I strew,' strāvi, strātum; in which verbs there is a change in the place of the vowel. Similarly, we have contem-no, 'I despise,' contemp-si, contemp-tum; li-no, 'I besmear,' lī-vi, li-tum; pono for pos-no, 'I place,' posui, positum and postum; si-no, 'I let, suffer, or cause to be,' sivi, situm. The last verb is used, without the inserted n, as the affix to a class of compound verbs signifying, 'to cause or allow an action.' These are known from other verbs in -so by their meaning and by the perfect -sivi. They are: arcesso or accerso for accedere sino, 'I send for,' i.e. 'cause to approach,' arcessīvi, arcessītum; capesso for capere sino, 'I let myself take,' i. e. 'I undertake,' capessivi, capessitum; lacesso for lacere sino, 'I let myself touch,' 'I provoke or irritate,' lacessīvi, lacessītum; quæro (from quæso, which occurs in the sense of

- 'prithee,') for quere (see in-quam) sino, 'I cause to speak,' i.e. 'I ask,' quæsīvi, quæsītum.
- (b) R added. The only verb of this class is se-ro, 'I sow,' sēvi, sătum.
- (c) Sc added. This affix is inchoative, i.e. it expresses the beginning of an action, and therefore is necessarily omitted in the perfect, which declares the completion or perfection of an action. If the termination follows a, e, i, the perfect is formed according to the rule of the vowel verbs: thus pasco, 'I feed,' makes pā-vi (though its compounds compesco, 'I feed together, 'keep in the same field,' 'restrain,' dispesco, 'I separate, make compescui, dispescui); cre-sco, 'I grow,' makes crē-vi; sue-sco, 'I am accustomed,' suē-vi; contice-sco, 'I become silent,' contic-ui; exarde-sco, 'I grow hot, exar-si; sci-sco, I inquire, scī-vi, like corresponding verbs in a, e, i. But di-sco for dic-sco, 'I learn,' makes didici. The only verb which has o before sc is no-sco, 'I get knowledge,' and its derivatives agnosco, 'I acknowledge,' cognosco, 'I become acquainted,' dignosco, 'I distinguish,' ignosco, 'I pardon,' i. e. 'take no knowledge of,' which make novi, 'I am acquainted with,' (always used as a present), agnovi, cognovi, &c., in which ov- may be syncopated, as in norunt, norim, nosse, &c.; compare commossem for commovissem (79, 1). In the supine we have notum, dignotum, ignotum, but agnitum, cognitum. If the original verb has a consonant for its characteristic, i is inserted before sc; thus from vivo we have revivisco, 'I revive,' revixi; and from facio we have profici-scor, 'I cause myself to set forth, 'I set out,' profectus sum. The peculiar verb ob-liv-i-scor, (from liv-o, 'to blacken,' whence livor, liveo, livesco) 'I make for myself a black mark,' 'I obliterate,' 'I forget,' has the perfect oblitus sum.

### B. Abbreviated Forms.

(98) The following verbs are liable to syncope or abbreviation in many of the inflexions: possum for potis sum, 'I am able,' which prefixes an abridged form of the adjective to a complete inflexion of the verb sum, except that in the perfect and pluperfect the f of fui is omitted, as in the verbs which take this form of the perfect; vŏlo, 'I wish,' and its compounds—nōlo for non volo, 'I do not wish;' mālo for magis volo, 'I prefer;'—ĕdo, 'I eat;' fero, 'I bear or suffer.' The latter is also irregular in having no perfect of its own, for tollo gives it the perfect and supine, tŭli for tetŭli, and lātum for t'latum or toltum, and takes to itself the compound forms sus-tŭli and sub-lātum.

### A.

I.

### Singular.

possum	pŏtĕs	pŏtest
vŏlo	vīs	vult
nŏlo	nonvis	nonvult
mālo	māvis	māvult
ĕdo	ĕdis v. es	ědit v. est
fero	fers	fert.

#### Plural.

possŭmus võlŭmus	potestis vultis	possunt võlunt
nōlŭmus	nonvultis	nölunt
mālŭmus	<b>mavultis</b>	mālunt
ĕdĭm <b>us</b>	ĕdĭtis v. estis	ĕdunt
ferĭmus	fertis	fĕrunt.

Singular.

II. Plural.

poteram, poteras, poterat poteramus, poteratis, poterant

vŏlēbam nölēbam fĕrēbam

mālēbam -bas, -bat. -bāmus, -bātis, -bant. edēbam

tňli

potui võlui nõlui mālui ēdi -isti, -it. -Ymus, -istis, -ērunt v. ĕre.

IV.

potueram , volueram tuleram

nolueram ederam ederam

٧.

potero, poteris, poterit poterimus, poteritis, poterunt volam

feram

ŧ

B.

2. nölī, nölīto.

2. nölīte, nölītöte. 2. ede, edito v. es, esto. 2. ĕdĭte, ĕdĭtōte v. este, estote.

3. ĕdunto.

3. edito v. esto.

2. fer, ferto, 3. ferto. 2 ferte, fertote, 3. ferunto.

OBS. Possum, volo, and male have no imperative.

C.

I.

Singular. Plural. possim velim .-is, -it. -īmus, -ītis, -int. nolim malim edam -as, -at. -āmus, -ātis, -ant. feram II. possem vellem nollem mallem ederem v.

III.

potuero, -im voluero, -im noluero, -im maluero, -im edero, -im tulero, -im tulero, -im

IV.

potuissem voluissem noluissem maluissem edissem tulissem

essem ferrem

-isses, -isset. -issēmus, -issētis, -issent.

D.

I.

posse, velle, nolle, malle, edere v. esse, ferre.

6-2

III.

potuisse, voluisse, noluisse, maluisse, edisse, tulisse.

v.

esūrum esse, laturum esse.

The supines of edo and fero are esum and latum.

The abbreviated forms of fero are found in the passive also; thus we have: A. I. feror, ferris, fertur, and B. ferre, fertor; C. II. ferrer, ferreris. In the passive of edo, we have estur for editur. In fero the shortened forms alone are used, but in edo both forms are common. In volo we have the still further abbreviations, sis for si vis, sultis for si vultis.

### § 20. Defective Verbs.

(99) All impersonal verbs are defective in the first and second persons, though they are regularly inflected through the moods and tenses; thus we have:

oportet me, 'it behoves me,' or 'I ought.'
miserebat te, 'it pitied you,' or 'you pitied.'
licuit mihi, 'it was allowed to me,' or 'I could.'
pigeret eum, 'it would vex him,' or 'he would be
vexed.'

(100) All neuter and deponent verbs are defective in voice, except when they are defective in person: thus curro, 'I run,' is not inflected in the passive, except as an impersonal, when we also have the gerund; as:

curritur a me, 'it is run by me,' i. e. 'I run.' currendum est vobis, 'you must run.'

(101) These verbs, fio, 'I become,' vāpulo, 'I cry out for pain,' 'I am beaten,' vēneo for venum eo, 'I go for sale,' 'I am sold,' are strictly passive in their signification and construction, and may be called neuter-

passives. Fio, which is used as the passive of facio, i make, i is thus inflected:

А. т.

C. 1.

fīo, fīs, fit

fīam, fīas, &c.

fīmus, fītis, fīunt.

II.

II.

fīēbam, &c.

fĭĕrĕm, &c.

III.

III.

factus sum, &c.

factus sim, fuero, fuerim.

IV. factus eram. IV.

v. fīam, fīes, fiet, &c.

В.

2. fi, fīto, 3. fīto. 2. fīte, fitōte, 3. fiunto.

D.

fĭĕri.

Veneo, which is a compound of the supine venum and the verb eo, is used as the passive to ven-do or venum do. We have seen that the passive infinitive of eo may be used with the supine of any verb to form the future infinitive passive; as: amatum iri, 'to be about to be loved,' from itur [a me, &c.] amatum, 'there is a going [by me, &c.] to love' = 'I am going to love,' (70.)

(102) A deponent verb is inflected like a passive, but has an active supine and participle; and its participle of the passive form is merely past in signification; thus: loquor, 'I am speaking,' locūtus sum, 'I have spoken,' loquens, 'speaking,' locūtūrus, 'about to speak,' locūtus, 'having spoken,' loqui and locūtum, 'to

speak,' locūtum esse, 'to have spoken,' locūtūrum esse, 'to be about to speak.' A deponent verb may be either transitive, as veneror deum, 'I worship God;' or intransitive, as morior, 'I am dying.'

- (103) Four verbs: audeo, 'I dare,' ausus sum; fido, 'I trust,' fisus sum; gaudeo, 'I am glad,' gavīsus sum; soleo, 'I am accustomed,' solītus sum, have a passive form but active signification in the perfect, and may therefore be called neuter deponents. To the same class belong the participles exōsus and perōsus, 'having hated;' pertæsus, 'weary of;' pōtus, 'having drunk,' which belong to active verbs.
  - (104) The following verbs are specially defective:
  - (a) Aio, 'I say.'

A. 1. aio, ăis, ăit aiunt.

11. aiēbam, -bas, -bat, -bamus, -batis, -bant.

III. ait.

Part. aiens.

(b) Inquam, 'say I,' 'quoth I,' only used between words quoted as spoken by another.

А. т.

inquam inquis inquit inquimus inquitis inquiunt.

п.

inquiēbam -bas -bat -bamus -batis -bant.

III.

inquisti inquit inquistis.

. v.

inquies inquiet.

В.

inque inquito.

inquite.

(c) Fari, 'to speak,' has only fatur, 'he says,'

- fare, 'say thou,' fatus, 'having said,' fando, 'by saying.'
- (d) Quæso, 'I pray,' 'prithee,' has only this form and quæsumus; but the verb quæro, which is merely another orthography, is complete.
- (e) Cœpi, 'I begin,' memini, 'I remember,' odi, 'I hate,' have only the perfect and pluperfect of the indicative, subjunctive and infinitive; but cœpi has also a perfect passive cœptus sum, and cœpi and ōdi have the future participles cœpturus and ōsūrus, and memini has the imperative memento, mementōte.
- (f) Forem and fore are used as synonyms of essem and futurum esse (above 72).
- (g) Ausim, -is, -it, -int are used for corresponding persons of audeam, 'I may dare,' and faxim, faxis, faxit, faximus, faxitis, faxint are synonymous with faciam, facias, &cc. 'I may make.'
- (h) The following verbs are used only as imperatives: apage, apagete, 'begone,' ave, avēte, 'hail,' salve, salvēte, 'good morrow,' fut. salvēbis, infin. salvēre; vale, valēte, 'farewell,' infin. valēre; to which may be added cēdo, 'give me,' 'tell me,' with its obsolete plural cette for cedite.

## CHAPTER V.

## UNDECLINED WORDS.

# § 21. Adverbs.

(105) Or the adverbs, the first and most important class consists of the negative and interrogative particles, which qualify the whole force of a sentence.

(a) A negative either denies, i. e. affirms that the thing is not so: or prohibits, i. e. forbids that it should be so: thus, non and haud deny, but ne prohibits: non dico, 'I do not say,' haud dico, 'I am the very reverse of saying,' but ne dic, 'say not,' ne dicam, 'let me not say,' 'that I may not say,' 'lest I say.' The difference between non and haud is, that, while the former merely denies, the latter contradicts; thus: auctor haud quaquam spernendus, means 'an author the very reverse of despicable: and haud scio does away with the ambiguity of the question which follows, so that haud scio an, means 'I am rather inclined to think.' Although ne by itself is always used in prohibitive, optative, or final sentences, ne or nec in composition amounts to a simple negative; as: ne-scio, 'I know not,' neg-otium, 'no leisure,' nec-opinato, 'unexpectedly,' &c.: and when followed by some other word and quidem it amounts to the intensive negative, 'not even; as: ne musca quidem, 'not even a fly.' The following rhyme will exemplify the usage, and remind the young student, that quidem must not immediately follow the negative:

'Ne unus quidem locus est
In all the authors, reckoned best,
Where ne—quidem 'not even' mean,
Without some word these words between.'

The reason is, because quidem qualifies only the word which it immediately succeeds.

In conditional and final sentences minus sometimes stands for non or ne; as si minus, 'if not;' quo-minus, 'lest,' 'so as not;' and in the conjunction qui-n the negative is represented by a single letter. Immo or imo, 'in the lowest degree' (from imus), is corrective and almost negative.

(b) The simple interrogative particles are num, utrum, an, -në (which is enclitic and may be added to

the three preceding) and nonne, to which we may add ec-found in ecquid, and numquid. Of these -ne appended to a verb merely inquires; num expects the answer 'no,' and nonne the answer 'yes;' numquid follows the meaning of num, and ecquid is quite general; utrum always implies an alternative, and an can only stand before the second of two questions. Thus we have the following usages:

wgrotasne? 'are you ill?'
num wgrotas? 'you are not ill, are you?'
nonne wgrotas? 'you are ill, are you not?'
utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est? 'is that your fault
or ours?'

The same rules apply to indirect questions. Of double questions there are only four modes:

1. utrum (num) an: 'non refert utrum sit aureum poculum, an vitreum, an manus concava,' 'it matters not whether it be a gold cup, or a silver one, or the hollow of the hand.'

2. an: 'recte an secus fecerim nescio,'
'whether I have done rightly or
otherwise, I know not.'

3. ne, enclitic, an: 'taceamne an prædicem nescio,'
'I know not whether to hold my
tongue or to speak out.'

4. ne: 'experiri voluit verum falsumne esset relatum,' 'he wanted to find out whether the story was true or false.'

Young students must remember that only an and no can render 'or' in questions:

'In double questions an and ne Not aut or vel the word must be.'

Besides these simple interrogatives, a number of

other words are used to ask the time, the place, the part, the origin and direction of motion, the cause, &c.: and have demonstrative adverbs to answer them. Such are quando or ecquando, 'when?' answer, tum; ubi, 'where?' answer, ibi, hic, istic, illic, according to the meanings of is, hic, iste, ille (62); qua, 'where?' answer, hac, illac, extra, infra, ultra, &c.; unde, 'whence?' answer, inde, hinc, istinc, illinc; quo, 'whither?' and quorsum for quoversum, 'to what point?' answer, huc, istuc, illuc, eo, isto, illo, retro, ultro citroque, &c.; quid, qui, cur=cui rei, qua-re, quam-ob-rem, 'why?' answer, ideo, idcirco, &c.

(106) Besides the demonstrative adverbs just mentioned as containing the answers to interrogatives, we have the exclusive usquam, 'any where at all,' unquam, 'ever at all,' which are liable to the rule about quisquam and ullus (68). Young scholars often contuse between unquam and semper, which is a very gross mistake:

'Qui pro semper scribit unquam, Probo stylo scribet nunquam.'

(107) Ultro, which properly answers to quo, as ultra does to qua, has some usages which deserve particular attention. Its primary meaning is 'to a place beyond;' as: ultro istum a me, 'take him far from me;' and ultro citroque is, 'thither and hither;' hence it signifies 'still farther,' 'over and above,' 'besides;' as: his lacrymis vitam damus et miserescimus ultro, 'to these tears we grant his life, and pity him besides.' But the commonest use of the word is as an apparent synonym for sponte, which must be distinguished from it. For sponte, which is the ablative of spons or expons, a derivative of another form of pondus, means 'by its own weight or inclination,' 'of its own accord,' 'unbidden:' hence we have (Hor. 1. Epist. XII. 17): sponte sud jussane: but ultro means 'going still

- farther, 'going beyond expectation,' without waiting,' to our surprise;' hence (in the same *Epist.* v. 22) we have: si quid petet, ultro defer, 'if he wants any thing, give it at once,' 'surprise him with it.' This distinction may be remembered by the following line: 'Sponte—quod injussus: necopinus quod facis,—ultro.'
- (108) The great majority of adverbs are cases of substantives, adjectives, and participles.
- (a) From adjectives and participles in -us, -a, -um, adjectives in -er, -a, -um, we have adverbs in  $\bar{e}$ , which is the commonest form, as longe from longus, or pulcre from pulcer; or o, as raro from rarus, subito from subitus. But we have bene and male from bonus and malus. Some adjectives have two forms of the adverb with a difference of meaning: thus certe means 'at any rate,' certo, 'certainly:' vere means 'truly;' vero is either the conjunction 'but,' or it is added to another word in the sense of 'indeed;' as: ego vero, minime vero. Sanē from sanus is nearly equivalent in meaning to certo, and has many idiomatic uses as a concessive particle, in which case it may even be opposed to certe; as: sint falsa sane, invidiosa certe non sunt, 'let them be false, if you please; at any rate they are not malicious' (Cic. Acad. Prior. 11, 32. § 105).
- (b) Other adjectives and participles form their adverbs, if they have any, in -ter, which is the common form, or else use their neuter as an adverb; thus, we have celeriter from celer, amanter from amans, &c., or dulce from dulcis, and recens instead of recenter. Some adjectives in -us have adverbs in -ter as well as in -e; thus we find both firms and firmiter from firmus. From violentus we have violenter only, although violens is never used in prose. Vehementer is used, like oppido, as a merely intensive adjunct in the sense of 'very' or 'very much;' as: have res vehementer ad me pertinet, 'this matter very much concerns me.'

- (c) Adverbs in -tim or -sim have a sort of participial meaning, but are apparently derived from nouns as well as verbs; thus we have: cæsim, 'cuttingly,' i.e. 'with a cut,' catervā-tim, 'troopingly,' i.e. 'in troops,' vicissim, 'in turns,' furtim, 'by stealth,' &c. Partim is merely the locative of pars; it means not only 'partly,' but, substantively, 'a part of;' as: partim e nobis timidi sunt, partim aversi, 'some of us are cowardly, others unfriendly.' Saltim, 'jumpingly,' is generally used as a concessive particle = 'at least,' 'at all events,' and statim, 'standingly,' means not only 'firmly,' 'stably,' but also and more commonly 'on the spot,' 'immediately,' as a particle of time.
- (d) Adverbs in -tus denote origin; as: celi-tus, 'from heaven,' fundi-tus, 'from the bottom,' peni-tus, 'from within,' hence 'entirely,' 'thoroughly,' like plane and prorsus = pro-versus, which have the same meaning.
- (e) Many adverbs are merely cases of nouns; as: diu, noctu, modo, forte, frustra, vulgo; and some include more than one word, as: denuo = denovo, profecto = pro facto, nimirum = mirum ni, postridie = posteri die, merīdie = medii die (where posteri, medii, are locatives, like domi), hodie = hoc die, magnopere = magno opere. Others are formed from verbs, as scilicet, videlicet, for scire licet, videre licet = 'it is clear,' dumtaxat = 'provided one estimates it exactly,' 'only,' 'at least,' 'as far as that goes.'
- (f) New adverbs are formed by prefixing prepositions, as exinde, deinde, subinde, adhuc, &c. But anteā, posteā, posthac, &c. are merely obsolete forms of the pronoun added to the preposition; thus anteā is for ante exc, posthac for post hxc, &c.

# § 22. Prepositions.

- (109) Prepositions are merely adverbs used in connexion with cases of the noun, from which they derive their principal application. The doctrine of the cases belongs to syntax: but the meaning of the prepositions may be explained here.
  - (a) A, (ab, absque), ad, adversus, apud, versus.
- A or ab (more rarely absque, which signifies 'without,') denotes separation or removal from the side or surface of an object; it may generally be rendered by 'from' or 'by,' and takes the ablative. As the act of separating implies nearness at the time of separation, we find that a, (ab) is used to express relative positions, as: a fronte, 'in front,' a tergo, 'behind,' and our word 'amanuensis' comes from the Latin phrase for a secretary: libertus a manu, 'a freed man at the hand,' i. e. 'who had to do with writing.'
- Ad signifies the act of addition, or motion with a view to conjunction or juxtaposition; it may generally be rendered by 'to' or 'at,' and takes the accusative. It is often combined with versus or versum in the sense of 'towards' or 'against:' as adversus leges, 'against the laws.' And versus alone may be used with names of places; as: Brundusium versus, 'towards Brundusium.'
- Apud, which is compounded of ab and ad, combines the meanings of these two prepositions, for it signifies 'being by the side of but not part of an object,' and this implies both juxtaposition and separation; it may generally be rendered by 'at' or 'with,' and always takes the accusative.

## (b) Ante, in, inter, intra.

In denotes position 'upon' or 'within' an object. It takes an accusative when it denotes 'into,' 'unto,'

'to,' and an ablative when it signifies 'in' or 'upon.' In the former case it may be followed by versus, as: in Galliam versus, 'towards Gaul.'

Inter signifies 'between' or 'among,' and governs the accusative. It is also used to express mutual agency, as: inter se diligunt, 'they love one another.'

Intra, which is only another form of inter, means

'within,' and governs the accusative.

Ante means 'before,' in place, time, or degree, and takes the accusative.

# (c) De, e, (ex), extra.

E or ex denotes motion from the interior of an object; it may generally be rendered 'out of,' and takes the ablative.

Extra, 'beyond' or 'without,' is the opposite of intra,

and like it takes the accusative.

- De implies descent and derivation, and takes the ablative. Its proper meaning is 'down from,' as: de rostris descendit, 'he came down from the pulpit;' but it is very commonly used to denote the subject from which an action or writing is derived, i.e. the source of agency; thus: scripsit de republica, 'he wrote about or concerning the commonwealth,' that was the source or subject from which he derived his book. For the distinction between de and ab, see Cic. de Orat. 11. 7, 28.
- (d) Cis, (citra), circa, (circum, circiter), trans, ultra.
- Gis or citra, 'on this side,' and its opposites ultra, 'on that side,' 'beyond,' and trans, 'across,' take the accusative.
- Circa, circum, 'around,' or 'about,' express approximate nearness in space or time. The derivative circiter denotes indefinite time or number. These take the accusative.

# (e) Contra, erga.

Contra, 'against,' and its opposite erga, 'towards,' (of affection), take the accusative.

# (f) Juxta, ob, penes, prope, propter.

Justa, 'close to,' and penes, 'in the power of,' approach in meaning to apud, and take the accusative.

Ob properly means circumposition at some height from the ground, i.e. 'upon,' (whence op-timus, 'uppermost'), but is practically used, like propter, with the accusative, to signify 'on account of.' Ob also means 'before,' and propter, like prope, from which it is derived, and which also takes the accusative, signifies 'near.'

# (g) Per, præ, præter, pro.

Per denotes 'through,' either in space or time, or as the instrument. It takes the accusative.

Pro, which signifies 'for,' 'before,' or 'proportionally to,' and præ, which denotes 'before,' in comparison with,' and 'owing to,' take the ablative. The derivative præter, 'beside,' 'beyond,' or 'except,' takes the accusative.

# (h) Cum, pone, post, secundum, sine.

Post, 'after,' 'behind,' or 'since,' and pone, 'behind,' take the accusative.

Cum, 'with,' and sine, 'without,' take the ablative.

Secundum, 'along,' 'according to,' 'following the course of,' sometimes agrees in meaning with cum, and sometimes with post. It takes the accusative.

## (i) Clam, coram.

Clam, 'without the knowledge of,' 'concealed from,' stands in a sort of opposition to coram, 'in the

presence of, 'before the eyes of,' and both take the ablative.

# (k) Infra, sub, subter, super, supra.

- Sub, 'under,' and super, 'above,' take the accusative when they denote motion, and the ablative when they imply rest. Supra, 'above,' is always used with the accusative, and subter, 'under,' generally with the accusative, but occasionally with the ablative. Infra, 'beneath,' is always construed with the accusative.
- (110) Most of the prepositions are used in composition, and generally add their own meaning to that of the verb; they are occasionally affected by the contact. The following list will show their employment and modifications.

Ab, 'from,' appears as a, ab, au, abs (before c and t); as: amitto, abeo, aufero, abscondo, abstineo.

Ad, 'to,' may change d into the first letter of the word, but sometimes also retains its form; as: adjungo, appono, alloquor, &c. In approbo and affirmo it merely strengthens the sense.

Ante, 'before;' as: antepono.

Circum, 'around;' as: circumeo.

Cum, 'with,' as con, co, or assimilated; thus: conjungo, coalesco, cogo for coago, cognosco, compono, corrumpo.

De, 'down from,' sometimes des- before t; as: descendo, detraho, destino; and sometimes with a negative force, as demens.

E, ex, 'out of,' (e before consonants, and ex before vowels and c, p, q, t, ef- before f); as: emitto, exigo, expono, extraho. It sometimes denotes completion; as in efficio, enarro, exoro.

In, 'into,' 'upon,' 'against,' im- before labials; as: incurro, impono. With adjectives it is a negative

prefix; as: incautus, imparātus.

Inter, 'between,' as interpono: sometimes assimilated, as in intelligo.

Ob, 'upon,' 'against,' (sometimes obs- before t, assimilated to labials and gutturals,  $\delta$  before m); as: objicio, obtineo, obs-tinatus, occurro, offero, oppono, omitto. With some verbs it denotes perseverance, as in obtineo, occupo, and our word 'obstinate.'

Per, 'through;' as: perlego, perago, but pergo for perrego. Post, 'after;' as: postpono, but pomærium, pomeridianus.

Præ, 'before;' as: præfero, præbeo for præhibeo.

Præter, 'by;' as: prætereo. Pro, 'before;' as: profero.

Sub, 'under,' may change b to the letter following in some cases, and may take s before t; as: succedo, surripio, subrideo, submoveo, summitto, subs-traho.

Super, 'upon,' 'in addition;' as: supersto, supersum. Trans. 'beyond,' sometimes trā; as: transeo, transjicio or trajicio; but always trado, trano.

(111) The following prepositions are used only in composition:

Amb- (another form of ob), also am- or an-, 'around;' as: ambio, amplector, anceps.

Dis-, dir-, di-, 'asunder;' as: disjicio, dirimo, digero. Re-, 'back,' also red- or ret-; as: revertor, redeo, rettuli.

Sē-, (another form of sine), 'apart,' 'without:' as: sēcerno, sēcurus.

Ve- or vehe-, 'away,' 'out of;' as: ve-cors, or vehemens, 'out of mind,' i.e. 'stupid or impatient,' vestibulum, 'that which stands out from the house.'

# § 23. Conjunctions.

(112) Conjunctions are divided into different classes, according to the sort of connexion which they

express between the words or sentences which they bind together.

- (a) Copulative conjunctions join words and sentences on an equal footing: they are
- (1) Positive, and signify: 'both—and,' 'also,' 'too,' 'likewise;' as: et, que, atque (ac); neque non, (necnon), etiam, quinetiam, quoque, itidem (item); also quum—tum, tum—tum, qua—qua, modo—modo, simul—simul.
- (2) Negative, and signify: 'neither—nor;' as: neque (nec), neve (neu).

(3) Disjunctive, and signify: 'either—or;' as:

aut, vel, -ve enclitic.

- (4) Alternative, and signify: 'whether—or;' as: sive (seu).
- Obs. 1. Et, which is another form of ad, merely denotes the addition of one thing to another; -que, which contains the same root as the relative, places two objects on a parallel footing, and combines them in one idea; at-que, which is compounded of the other two, implies that there is not only an addition, but also an intimate connexion between the things coupled together, and therefore indicates cause and effect, antecedent and consequent, &c. Ac is another form of atque, as nec is of neque, and never stands before yowels or h, although nec and neque are used indifferently before vowels or consonants. The following examples, taken from the first chapter of Cæsar, de Bello Civili, will show the use of et, que, atque (ac). The chapter might be headed de causa et origine belli civilis, because they are separate subjects; and in the context we find: senatu reique publica, because the senate and the state form one connected, complex notion; but we have: audacter ac fortiter,-sin Casarem respiciant atque ejus gratiam sequantur,—gratiam atque amicitiam, because the word or phrase which follows atque (ac) is

extension or supplement of that which precedes. In some copulative phrases the et is always omitted; for example, in *Patres, Conscripti*, for *Patres et Conscripti*, 'Patricians and new Senators.'

- Obs. 2. The following are the allowable forms of doubled copulative conjunctions: et—et; et—que (atque); que—et; que—que (only in the poets); nec (neque)—nec (neque); neque—nec; nec—neque (rare); et—neque; nec (neque)—et; nec (neque)—que; aut—aut; vel—vel; seu—seu; sive—sive. And those mentioned above, as quum—tum, &c.
- Obs. 3. Of the disjunctives, aut, which is another form of haud or haut, expresses total separation, vel suggests a choice, and -ve conveys an unimportant distinction; thus: quidquid dicam aut erit aut non, 'whatever I shall say will either be, or, which is quite a different thing, it will not; hanc mihi vel clam vel precario fac tradas, 'take care to procure her for me either by stealth or, if you please, by entreaty; and compare si plus minusve dixero, 'if I shall have said more or less,' the difference being small (Cic. pro Flacco, 5), with aut plus aut minus, quam opus erat, multo, where the difference is expressly stated to be great (Plautus, Menæchmei, 1v. 2, 27). From the exclusive force of aut, it is often used after negatives; as: non mehercule unquam apud judices aut dolorem aut misericordiam aut invidiam aut odium excitare dicendo volui (Cic. de Oratore, 11, 45, 189).
- (b) Adversative conjunctions oppose words and sentences, and may be rendered by 'but,' 'however,' 'yet,' 'still,' 'nevertheless,' 'notwithstanding;' they are: sed, autem, verum, vero, at, atqui, tamen, attamen, sed tamen, verumtamen, nihilominus, at vero, enimvero, cete-sum.

- Obs. Sed, which is another form of sine and the prefix se-, conveys a direct opposition or contradiction; autem, which is a lengthened form of aut, states that the new matter is different, but not necessarily inconsistent; at, which is another form of ad and et, merely denotes continuance, or the addition of something farther, so that the contrast is produced not by any thing in the meaning of at, but in the contemporaneous existence of opposite phenomena, which it introduces. Thus sed means: 'but on the contrary;' autem, 'but, which is a different matter; and at, 'joined even to that, 'still,' yet,' notwithstanding; as in the following examples: non mihi, sed tibi, not to me, but, on the contrary, to you; Gyges a nullo videbatur, ipse autem omnia videbat, 'Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself, which was quite a different matter, saw all things; Cæsar fuit vir fortis, prudens, clemens: at ambitiosus, at patriæ proditor, Cæsar possessed fortitude, prudence, and clemency, still, yet, continuing all this state of things, and in addition to them he was, at the same time, ambitious, and a traitor to his country.' Sometimes at means 'therefore,' or 'well then,' as in Livy, 1. 38: at ego recipio, 'well then, therefore, as a continuance, necessary and expected, I receive the surrender,' which is the natural consequence of the capitulation; and so in imprecations, as in Virg. En. 11. 538: at tibi pro scelere, &c., 'therefore may the gods punish thy wickedness.' Verum and vero are merely corrective, but verum etiam and sed etiam are synonymous.
- (c) Inferential conjunctions may generally be rendered by 'therefore,' 'wherefore,' 'accordingly;' they are: ergo, igitur, itaque, ideo, idcirco, proinde, proptereā, and the relative forms: quāpropter, quārē, quamobrem, quocirca, unde.

Obs. Ergo is sometimes an expression of sorrow;

- as: Ergo Quintilium perpetuus sopor urget! 'So then eternal sleep oppresses Quintilius!'
- (d) Causal conjunctions are: nam, namque, enim, etenim, quia, quod, quoniam, quippe, quum, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem, utpote; and may be rendered: for,' because,' since,' inasmuch as.'
- Obs. Quoniam = quum jam, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem, assign the motive; and quod states the cause. Quippe, which is used alone in the sense of 'for,' is frequently joined with quum, quod, quia, and the relative qui in the sense of 'inasmuch as.' The same remark applies to utpote.
- (e) Comparative conjunctions: ut, uti, sicut, velut, prout, prout, ceu, quam, tanquam, quasi, utsi, acsi, may generally be rendered by 'as' or 'as if,' and to these may be added atque (ac) when it signifies 'as' or 'than.'
- (f) Conditional conjunctions are: si, 'if,' sin, 'but if,' nisi or ni, 'unless,' si modo, dummodo, 'provided only,' (for which dum and modo alone are sometimes used), dummodo ne, 'provided only not,' (for which we may have dum ne and modo ne).
  - Obs. Quod before si or nisi must be rendered 'but.'
- (g) Concessive conjunctions generally signify 'although.' They are: etsi, etiamsi, tametsi (tamenetsi), quamquam, quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, licet, ut, quum.
- Obs. A concessive particle is often followed by an adversative: tamenetsi in particular is often sustained by tamen nihilominus in the other clause.
- (h) Final conjunctions express the purpose, object, or result: they are ut (uti), quo, ne, or ut ne, neve, (neu), quin, quominus, and may be rendered 'to the end that,' 'so that,' 'lest,' &c.

(i) Temporal conjunctions may be rendered 'when,' 'after,' 'since,' 'before,' 'until;' they are: quum, quum primum, ut, ut primum, postquam, priusquam, antequam, quando, simulatque (simulac), or simul alone, dum, usque dum, donec, quoad.

Obs. Dum, usque dum, donec and quoad signify both 'as long as' and 'until.' The local adverb ubi is also used as a temporal conjunction.

# § 24. Interjections.

- (113) Interjections or exclamatory words express joy, as: io, evæ; sorrow, as: heu, væ; astonishment, as: o, en, (ecce), papæ, vah; calling, as: heus, ehodum; praise, as: eia, euge; attestation, as: proh.
- Obs. 1. Other parts of speech may be used as interjectional words; nouns, as: malum, nefas, and in the vocative, as: macte; verbs, as: quæso, obsecro, amabo, used in entreaties. So also the hortative age, agite, cedo, sodes = si audes, sis = si vis, agesis = age si vis, &c. And the adverbs næ and profecto.
- Obs. 2. Invocations of the gods have sometimes passed into mere interjections or even adverbs; thus hercle or mehercle or mehercules is merely equivalent to næ or profecto.

#### CHAPTER VI.

## DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

## § 25. Derived Nouns and Verbs.

# (a) Derived Nouns.

(114) Substantives in -tor, -trix, signify an

agent, as: vic-tor, vic-trix.

Substantives in -or, -tio, -tus (-sus), m., -tus, -tūtis, f. -tūdo, -tas (-tātis), -tia, -edo express a quality or action; as: am-or, mo-tio, mo-tus, vi-sus, vir-tus, fortitudo, cupidi-tas, justi-tia, pingu-ēdo.

Substantives in -ium express the result of action;

as: gaud-ium, connub-ium, refug-ium, minister-ium.

Substantives in -men or -mentum express a thing done, especially when it remains for use; as: ag-men, orna-mentum, docu-mentum.

Substantives in -lum, -trum, -crum generally denote a place or opportunity of doing, and those in -ŭlum, -būlum, -bīa or -brum, -cūlum commonly imply an instrument or means of doing; as: temp-lum, an-trum, sepul-crum; jac-ulum, vena-bulum, candela-brum, vehiculum.

Substantives in -lus, -călus, -ălus, -ŏlus and -leus, are diminutives; as: libel-lus, pisci-culus, ar-ula, filiŏlus, acu-leus. The diminutive puella for puer-ula, from puera, is used instead of the original word.

Substantives in -ārium, -ētum, and -īle denote the receptacle, the plantation, and the stable or stall respectively; as: gran-arium, arbor-ētum (but arbustum, like salic-tum, virgul-tum), bov-īle.

Substantives in -ides, -ides, -ides are Greek patronymics; as: Tantalides, Pelides, Thestides.

(115) Adjectives derived from substantives are generally possessives and end in -ālis, -ānus, -āris,

-ārius, -ĕus, -ensis, ĕcus, -ius, -īlis, -īnus, -ōsus, -stus; as: reg-ālis from rex, Romānus from Roma, consul-āris from consul, ferr-ĕus from ferrum, circ-ensis from circus, class-ĕcus from classis, senātor-ius from senātor, civ-īlis from civis, asin-īnus from asĕnus, ærumn-ōsus from ærumna, onūs-tus from onus, hone-stus from honor. Adjectives in -lentus are not derivatives, but compounds with the adjective lentus, which signifies 'slow,' 'loaded,' 'heavy,' 'having much of a thing;' thus: opulentus = opum lentus, 'loaded with wealth,' and so forth.

(116) Verbal adjectives in -ax imply inclination or disposition; as loqu-ax from loquor; and those in -bilis or -ilis express capability, either actively as terribilis, 'capable of frightening,' or passively as placābilis, 'capable of being appeased,' facilis, 'capable of being done,' i. e. 'easy.' Adjectives in -bundus are really active participles; as: lacrima-bundus, 'weeping;' and those in -cundus for -scundus are similarly formed from inchoatives in -sco (97, c); as: irā-cundus, 'angry,' from ira-scor. Adjectives in -idus have also the meaning of an intransitive participle; as: rap-idus from rapio, cup-idus from cupio, cal-idus from caleo. There are many adjectives in -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, which have the meaning of passive participles, though they cannot be referred to any existing verbs; such are: barbātus, 'bearded,' aurītus, 'long-eared,' cornūtus, 'horned.'

# (b) Derived Verbs.

(117) Derivative verbs are either extensions of other verbs, or are formed from nouns. The first class are (1) inchoatives in -sco, as cale-sco from caleo; (2) frequentatives in -ito, -itare, as cogito from cogo, dormito for dormi-ito from dormio; (3) desideratives in -irio, as es-irio from edo, ēsum; (4) diminutives in -illo, as scrib-illo from scribo. The second class, or verbs de-

rived from nouns, are always contracted verbs in -a, -e, -i, and it is generally to be observed that while -e verbs thus derived are intransitives, -a and -i verbs are transitive. Thus we have:

#### -a verbs:

cura curāre
bellum bellāre
nomen nomināre
amor amāre
laus laudāre
cavus cavāre

levis levāre (for *leviare*) celeber celebrāre.

#### -e verbs:

ardor ardēre
flos florēre
lux lucēre
frons frondēre.

#### i- verbs:

auris audīre finis finīre mollis mollīre vestis vestīre.

# § 26. Composition.

(118) A compound is an union of two or more words of which the last only is inflected, the preceding word or words being in a dependent or construct state, and having consequently lost all inflexion. If both parts retain their inflexion, or, if the first part, though an oblique case, is separable, the composition is only apparent: thus respublica, 'the commonwealth,' jusjurandum, 'an oath,' in which both parts are declined

throughout, and senatusconsultum, 'a resolution of the senate,' verisimilis, 'like the truth,'—are not compounds, but juxtapositions of separable elements, and we may say resque publica, senatusve consulta.

- (119) The first part of a real compound is either an indeclinable word, or a noun, whether substantive, adjective, or numeral, and the latter part of the word always determines to what part of speech the whole belongs.
- (a) When the first part is a particle, the vowels and diphthongs ă, ĕ, ae, au in the root of the word which follows are liable to be changed into i, e,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{u}$  or  $\bar{e}$  respectively (above, 2, 3); thus from amīcus, capio, we have in-imicus, ac-cipio; from teneo we have contineo; from æquus, æstimo, we have in-iquus, ex-istimo; from claudo, causa, ex-cludo, ac-cuso; from audio, obedio; &c.: but before two consonants, and sometimes before a consonant and the semi-consonant i, a is represented by e; compare barba, im-berbis, scando, as-cendo, spargo, con-spergo, &c., with facio, pro-fic-iscor, profectus, jacio, ab-jicio, ab-jectus, cano, concino, con-centus, pario, peperi; and before l and a consonant a may become u: compare calco, con-culco, with colo, cultura. In some cases an e is retained, as in peto, ap-peto, tego, con-tego; and lego exhibits in its compounds both e and i, as per-lego, intel-ligo; the compounds of traho, caveo and hareo retain the vowel or diphthong unaltered, and the same applies to all compounds of maneo except e-mineo.
- (b) When the first word is a noun and the second begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as in magn'animus; but if the second begins with a consonant, the connecting vowel is generally i, as: causidicus, corni-ger, ædi-fico. Sometimes, however, the i is omitted, as in naufragus (from navis and frango), puer-

pera (from puer and pario), mus-cipula (from mus and capio), and sometimes a characteristic letter and its preceding vowel are left out before i, as in  $lap-i-c\bar{\iota}da$  for  $lapidi-c\bar{\iota}da$ ,  $hom-i-c\bar{\iota}da$  for  $hom inic\bar{\iota}da$ , op-i-fex for  $op\bar{e}-rifex$ , &c. When the first is a numeral, it is either unchanged, as in decemvir, or is specially changed, as in biceps, guadrupes, triumvir. In some few cases the connecting vowel is  $\delta=\check{u}$ ; as: Aheno-barbus, Trojugena, violentus, opulentus; and in  $tib\bar{\iota}-cen$ ,  $tibi-\bar{\iota}-cen$ , we have a contracted i, though  $tub-\bar{\iota}-cen$  follows the general rule.

(120) Compounds are called (a) determinative when the first part of the word defines the second; as: interrex, cognomen, beneficus, latifundium, laticlāvus, &c.; (b) syntactical, when the first word is governed by the second; as: agricŏla, opulentus, signifer, æquiparo, breviloquens, &c.; (c) auxiliary, when two verbs come together, and the second helps the former, as ama-vī for ama-fui, ven-do for venum do, arcesso for ac-cedere sino; (d) possessive, when the first part denotes the manner of the thing possessed; as: crassipes, 'thick-footed,' alipes, 'wing-footed,' and the negatives expers, 'without a share in,' inermus, 'without arms,' &c.

# PART II.

# Syntax, or the Construction of Words.

#### CHAPTER I.

## INTRODUCTION.

# § 1. General Principles.

- (121) Construction or Syntax gives the rules for expressing and connecting Sentences. Some of these rules, together with the principles on which they rest, are common to all languages; others are dependent on the idioms or peculiarities of a particular language. Latin syntax has many idioms or forms of expression which are peculiar to itself.
- (122) A Sentence expressed in words is called a Proposition or Enunciation, and may always be resolved into three essential parts—the Subject, the Copula, and the Predicate.
- (123) The Subject is some noun substantive, pronoun, or other designation of a person or thing about which we say something; the Copula is some finite mood and tense of the verb 'to be;' and the Predicate is some adjective or other general term, which is predicated or asserted of the subject: thus in the sentence Deus est bonus, 'God is good,' Deus is the subject, est the copula, and bonus the predicate.
- (124) The predicate and copula are very often included in some form of a finite verb; thus equus currit,

- 'the horse runs,' is equivalent to equus est currens, 'the horse is running.'
- (125) The whole sentence may be contained in a finite verbal form. This is especially the case when the nominative is one of the personal pronouns; indeed these are never expressed unless some emphasis is intended; as in the lines of Terence (Adelph. 111. 4, 10 seqq.):

'In te spes omnis, Hegio, nobis sita est: Te solum habemus; tu es patronus, tu pater: Si deseris tu, periimus.'

But Cæsar writing to the Senate, after his victory over Pharnaces, says: Veni, Vidi, Vici, where three complete sentences, 'I came, I saw, I conquered,' are included in three words: because every one knew who was the agent.

- (126) The nominative is also very frequently omitted when the verb shows what it must be: thus we say pluit, 'it rains,' i.e. cælum; advesperascit, 'it grows towards evening,' sc. dies: sometimes with a pronoun; as: luciscit hoc jam, 'this is growing light,' sc. cælum (Plautus, Amphitr. 1. 3, 45).
- (127) Impersonal verbs explain this usage by the apposition of a sentence which follows, and which is equivalent to a nominative case; as: pudet me errare, 'to err shames me,' i. e. 'I am ashamed to err.'

## § 2. Main Rules of Latin Syntax.

(128) The main rules of Latin Syntax, which are more or less common to it with other inflected languages, are the following:

### A. Tres Concordantia.

- I. Verbum personale cum nominativo concordat numero et persona. A personal verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person; as: equus currit, 'a horse runs,' nos pueri discimus, 'we boys learn.'
- II. Adjectivum cum substantivo concordat genere, numero et casu. An adjective, whether predicate or epithet, agrees with its substantive in gender, number, and case; as: Deus est bonus, 'God is good,' celeres equi, 'swift horses;' where bonus is the predicate of Deus, and celeres is a descriptive epithet of equi.
- III. Relativum cum antecedente concordat genere, numero et personá. The relative agrees with its antecedent, i.e. with the substantive which it helps to define, in gender, number and person; but derives its case from the verb with which it is construed; as: adsum, qui feci, 'I, who did it, am here,' urbs, quam condiderunt, 'the city, which they founded,' phaselus ille, quem videtis, 'that skiff which ye see.'

These are called the three concords.

## B. Casus Nominum.

- IV. Nomina ejusdem relationis nominibus in eodem casu apponuntur. When two substantives refer to the same person or thing, they are put in the same case by apposition; as: Æneas filius, 'Æneas the son.'
- V. Nomina diversæ relationis in genitivo apponuntur. When one substantive depends upon another, it is put in the genitive case; as: Æneas filius Anchisæ, 'Æneas, the son of Anchises.'
- VI. Predicata primaria subjecti casum obtinent. When two nouns are connected by a verb signifying 'to be, become, be called, thought, or appointed,' they

stand in the same case; as: perpusilli vocantur nani, 'very little men are called dwarfs.'

- VII. (a) Accusativo casu stat
  Objectum, ad quod transeat
  Transitivorum actio;
  Ut: 'filios meos amo.'
  - (b) Latina præpositio
    Designat 'ubi,' 'unde,' 'quo.'
    Exceptis his
    vocabulis:
    'Militia,' 'humus,' 'domus,' 'rus;'
    Et urbium nominihus.
  - (c) Agentia rei gestæ, quorum Nominativi rite stant Pro subjectis activorum, 'A, ab,' cum ablativo dant.
  - (d) Sed postulat Latinitas
    Ut ablativis exprimas
    Causas, modos, formas agendi,
    Et instrumenta faciendi;
    Et cave unquam scribas 'cum'
    Doctoris ad fastidium.
  - (e) Id quod eodem pertinet— Sententiis quibuslibet Ablativus assidet, Ut absolute prædicet.

These rules are classed together, because they tell the young scholar when to use and when to omit a Latin preposition in rendering an oblique case, which is always his greatest difficulty. (a) The immediate object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative case, without a preposition; as: pater amat filium, 'a father loves his son,' i.e. his son is the object of his love. (b) We must add a Latin preposition signifying 'in,' 'on' or 'at,' 'from' or 'out of,' 'to' or 'into,' if we

wish to express the place where, whence, or whither: as: restat in hoc loco, 'he remains in this place;' profectus est ab illo loco, 'he set out from that place;' venit ad hunc locum, 'he came to this place.' Except the nouns militia (or bellum), humus, domus and rus, and the names of cities, which express these relations without the assistance of prepositions; as: una semper militiæ et domi fuimus, 'we were always together on service and at home;' Roma profectus est, 'he set out from Rome;' ego rus ibo, 'I will go into the country.' (c) We may put the object of the active verb in the nominative case of the passive and substitute for the subject an ablarive, which must be accompanied by a, ab; as: filius a patre amatur, 'a son is loved by his father.' (d) While the person, by whom the action is performed, is thus expressed in the ablative with a, ab, the thing (whether cause, manner, form, or instrument) by or with which the action is effected must be expressed in the ablative without any preposition, and the young scholar must be careful to resist the temptation to use cum, 'with.' which denotes only an accompaniment; thus: securi percussus est a Pisone, 'he was smitten by Piso with an axe.' (e) To the same idiom we may refer the use of the ablative absolute to express a subordinate predication of time, cause, or circumstance; as: magna comitante caterra, ibat ad tumulum, 'he went to the tomb with a great crowd accompanying him;' nihil de hac re agi potest, salvis legibus, 'nothing can be done in this matter without violating the laws; i.e. 'with the laws in their integrity.'

VIII. Subjectum infinitivi in regimine verbi finiti versatur. When the subject of a dependent verb in the infinitive mood is expressed, it is put in the accusative case, unless the main verb requires a dative; as: gaudeo to bene valere, 'I am glad that you are in good health;' but licet tibi esse beato, 'it is permitted to you to be happy,' or 'that you should be happy.'

IX. Dativus limitationem qualemcunque denotat. The limitation of an action, whether expressed or not by 'to' or 'for' in English, may always be conveyed by the dative in Latin; as: dedit mihi librum, 'he gave me the book,' i. e. 'he gave the book to me;' or even two datives; as: exitio est mare nautis, 'the sea is destined or designed for destruction to sailors.'

## C. Verborum Modi.

- X. a. Verbum subjunctum in subjunctivo ponitur; sed, b. Verbum, quod per relativum definit ac describit, in indicativo restat. a. Whenever a verb, subjoined to or dependent on another verb, is not in the infinitive mood, in other words, whenever it denotes dependently an end, a cause, a consequence, or a concession, and is connected with the main verb by a relative or relative particle, it is necessarily in the subjunctive mood; b. but the indicative mood is retained, if the relative word refers to a definite antecedent, and is therefore not dependent on the main verb; thus we have: missi sunt, qui urbem oppugnarent, 'they were sent to besiege the city,' but qui urbem oppugnabant, Romani erant, 'those who besieged the city were Romans.'
- XI. Oratio obliqua subjunctivum exigit. The subjunctive is invariably used when a relative sentence is included in the construction of the accusative and infinitive (VIII.); as: Socrates dicere solebat omnes in eo, quod scirent, satis esse eloquentes, because in eo quod scirent depends upon the oblique or accusative expression of the opinion of Socrates.
- XII. Interrogatio obliqua subjunctivum requirit. The indicative is always used in direct questions; as: quis est? 'who is it?' But the subjunctive is invariably found in indirect questions; as: nescio quis sit, 'I know not who it is.'

- XIII. Ut finalis et illativa subjunctivum postulat. The subjunctive is necessarily used after ut, signifying an end or consequence; as: missi sunt, ut specularentur, 'they were sent to the end that they might act as spies;' Titus ita facilis fuit, ut nemini quidquam negaret, 'Titus was so good-natured that, as a consequence, he could not deny any thing to any body.'
- XIV. Ne, si finem prohibet, subjunctivum deposcit. When the end or consequence is something feared or avoided, ne takes the place of ut; as: vos adepti estis, ne quem civem metueretis, 'you have gained this consequence or result, that you are not obliged to fear any one of your fellow-citizens.' The force of this is best shown by the construction of ut and ne after verbs of fearing, where the former expresses that a desirable consequence is improbable, the latter that an undesirable result is anticipated; thus: vereor ne pater veniat, 'I fear my father will come,' i.e. 'I look forward to that event with apprehension;' vereor ut pater veniat, 'I fear my father will not come,' i.e. 'my fear is as to the obstacles which will prevent him.'
- XV. Consecutio temporum valet in subjunctivo. If one sentence is dependent on another, the verbs must be in congruous tenses; thus the present subjunctive will express the end of the present or future, and the imperfect subjunctive must follow any past tense; as: scribo, scripsi or scribam, ut discas, 'I write,' 'I have written,' or 'I shall write, that you may learn;' scribebam, scripsi, scripseram, 'I was writing, I wrote, I had written, that you might learn.'
- XVI. Quatuor sunt conditionalium formulæ. The same rule of congruity is of course applicable to the different forms of conditional sentences, which imply respectively,
  - (1) Possibility, without the expression of uncer-

tainty; as: si quid habet, dat, 'if he has any thing, he gives it.'

- (2) Uncertainty, with some small amount of probability; as: si quid habeat, dabit, 'if he shall have any thing (which is not improbable), he will give it.'
- (3) Mere assumption, without any subordinate idea; as: si quid habeat, det, 'if he were to have any thing (i.e. as often as he had any thing), he would give it.' The present tense is used because the results are supposed to be still within the reach of the speaker.
- (4) Impossibility, or when we wish to indicate that the thing is not so; as:
- (a) si quid haberet, daret, 'if (which is not the case) he had any thing, he would give it.'
- (b) si quid habuisset, dedisset, 'if (which was not the case) he had had any thing, he would have given it.'

These are the main or general rules of Latin syntax. For convenience sake, the details of their application may be exhibited in the order suggested by the accidence. But we may from the first presume a knowledge of the constructions here explained.

## § 3. Order of Words in a Sentence.

- (129) Among the peculiarities of the Latin language, the arrangement or order of the words demands the earliest attention of the student. The two general rules by which it is governed are the following:
- (a) That the most emphatic words take precedence in the sentence.
- (b) That, if emphasis does not interfere, the explanatory or additional word follows the subject but precedes the predicative word or phrase to which it belongs.

- (130) From this it will follow that the subject will generally stand first and the predicative verb last, while the intervening particles, dependent cases, &c., will stand between them in an order regulated by their weight in the sentence; thus we may say: Romani Jovi templum in capitolio condiderunt, 'the Romans to Jove a temple in the capitol erected,' if we mean to direct attention to the fact that the god to be honoured was the distinctive circumstance; but we might say also: Romani templum in capitolio Jovi Junoni Minervæ condiderunt, if we wished to lay a stress on the foundation of the temple without such a special reference to the worship to be carried on in it.
- (131) As the Latin language has no article, the definite epithet cannot very well precede its noun, unless it has some distinctive emphasis of its own. The same rule applies to the genitive case in regimen, and to the apposition of a title or definition. Hence, in all ordinary cases, the adjective follows the noun, the genitive its governing substantive, and the appositive the word which it qualifies; as:
- (a) res familiaris, 'property;' res publica, 'the state;' jus civile, 'the civil law;' civis Romanus, 'a Roman citizen;' æs alienum, 'debt;' via Appia, 'the Appian road,' &c.
- (b) filius Anchisæ, 'the son of Anchises;' magister equitum, 'master of the knights;' tribunus militum, 'tribune of the soldiers,' &c.
- (c) Q. Mucius augur, M. Tullius Cicero consul, Cyprus insula, Tiberis fluvius. But urbs applied to Rome is a sort of proper name like βασιλεύς, sine articulo, of the Persian king; hence urbs Roma, not Roma urbs.
- (132) If a substantive is explained by a genitive case or other adjunct, as well as by an adjective, the

combined epithet is sufficiently definite to precede the noun, and the adjective generally stands first; thus: summum eloquentiæ studium, nocturnus in urbem adventus, &c.

- (133) A demonstrative pronoun will of course precede the noun to which it calls attention; as have mulier, ille vir. But if there is also an adjective, the pronoun and adjective may follow as in Greek; thus: ἀτὴρ ὁ μέγας = vir ille magnus, or magnus ille vir.
- (134) Adverbs, according to rule (b), regularly precede the predicative word to which they are attached. This is always the case with the categorical negative non.
- (135) Repeated words are placed in juxtaposition, the subject preceding the oblique case (b); thus: nulla virtus virtuti contraria est. The same rule applies to contraries; thus: quædam falsa veri speciem habent.
- (136) Antithesis sometimes exhibits an inverted order; thus: ratio nostra consentit, repugnat oratio.
- (137) Certain words have a fixed place in the clauses to which they belong.
  - a. Nam always stands first: generally also namque.
- b. Enim always after at least one word, seldom after two. In the compound enimvero it may commence a sentence.
- c. Ergo either at the beginning or after another emphatic word. Igitur always follows, and may be last word. Itaque generally begins the sentence.
- d. Quoque and autem immediately after the word which they add or oppose.
- e. Etiam before the word to which it belongs, unless this word is very emphatic.

- f. Quidem after the word which it qualifies, and to which it is closely attached. If ne precedes, the meaning is 'not even,' (above, 105, a).
- g. Tamen stands at the beginning, unless a single word is to be made emphatic.
- h. Autem always follows the first word in the sentence.
  - i. No enclitic can stand first in a sentence.

Quoque, autem, quidem, que, Second words must always be.

These are the general rules: but it is only the perusal of the best writers, and practice in prose composition, which can give that perception of emphasis on which so much depends, or enable us to frame perspicuous and harmonious periods.

## CHAPTER II.

## CASES OF NOUNS.

# § 4. Nominative and Accusative.

- (138) The nominative expresses the subject, and the accusative the object of a verb; as: pater filium amat, 'the father, (who is the subject spoken of), loves or is loving, (which is the action predicated) his son, (who is the object of the action).'
- (139) Two or more nominatives in the singular number, joined together by a copulative conjunction, take a plural verb, the person being that of the noun which stands first in the usual order of reference; thus, if the first person is referred to by any one of the nominatives, the verb will be in the first person; if the

second person appears among the nominatives without the first, the verb will be in the second person; otherwise, the verb will be in the third; thus:

> ego et Caius discimus; tu et exercitus valetis; Castor et Pollux ex equis pugnabant.

But the verb may be made to agree with one nominative only, when one idea only is expressed; as:

tempus necessitasque postulat;
or when the subjects are separated in the thought; as:
dixit hoc Zosippus et Ismenias.

(140) The same rule applies to the number of the adjectival predicate; but when there is a difference of gender among the separate subjects, the predicate is masculine in the case of living beings, but neuter in the case of inanimate things; as:

uxor mea et filius mortui sunt;

but:

secundæ res, honores, imperia, victoriæ fortuita sunt.

(141) Collective expressions, of whatever kind, may take a plural verb; as:

magna vis hominum segetem fuderunt in Tiberim. pro se quisque miles gaudio alacres fremunt. uterque exercitum ex castris educunt. Ilia cum Lauso de Numitore sati sunt.

But unus et alter may have a verb in the singular; as: dicit unus et alter breviter.

(142) The same reference to the idea conveyed, also regulates the gender of the predicate; as:

millia triginta servilium capitum dicuntur capti.

(143) Any sentence may become objective, that is, dependent in the infinitive mood on another verb; and in this case the nominative, or subject, becomes the accusative or object; thus the sentence: Æneas filius fuit Anchisæ, might become the object of the verb divit, 'he said,' and we should then write: divit, 'he said,'—what! Æneam Anchisæ filium esse, 'that Æneas was the son of Anchises'—that is what he said, or the object of his speaking.

Hence the student will remember that a dependent sentence beginning with that may always be rendered by the accusative and infinitive in Latin, if it can be made to answer or explain the question what? If it expresses an end or consequence it must be rendered

by ut and the subjunctive (128, x111.)

(144) Certain verbs, which express that a nearer, as well as a more remote object—a person as well as a thing—is affected by the action, may be followed by two accusatives. To this class we may refer verbs of asking, teaching, concealing, &c.; thus:

posce Deos veniam, 'ask: whom? the gods: for what? pardon.'

dedocebo te istos mores, 'I will unteach: whom? you: what? those customs of yours.'

omnes celat iter, 'he conceals: what? his journey: from whom? from all men.'

These verbs in the passive retain the accusative of the thing; as:

rogatus est sententiam, 'he was asked his opinion.'

- (145) Neuter verbs are followed by an accusative of cognate signification; as:
- duram servit servitutem, 'he serves a hard slavery.'
  - (146) Any neuter or passive verb may take an

accusative denoting the part of the subject, which is regarded, for the moment, as an object; thus:

tremit artus, 'he is trembling in or as to his limbs.'

(147) Verbs of motion are followed by the accusative case representing the end or direction of the movement; but except in proper names denoting a place, and the words domus, rus, &c., the prepositions ad, in, versus, contra, trans, ultra, super, per are required to define the word; thus:

ad templum Palladis ibant, 'they went to the temple of Pallas.'

ultra terminum vagor, 'I wander beyond the boundary.' but:

Regulus Carthaginem rediit, 'Regulus returned to Carthage.'

ite domum, 'go home.'

ego rus ibo, 'I will go into the country.'

(148) The accusative signifies not only the end or direction of the movement, but also the space or time through which a movement or action continues; and the distance between two objects or periods; thus:

Casar tridui iter processit, 'Casar marched (through)
a journey of three days.'

Casar millia passuum tria ab Helvetiorum castris castra ponit, 'Casar pitches his camp three miles from that of the Helvetians.'

Pericles quadraginta annos præfuit Athenis, 'Pericles ruled Athens (through) forty years.'

Hence the accusative is used with adjectives indicating dimensions; as:

hasta sex pedes longa, 'a spear long to the extent of six feet,' i. e. 'six feet long.'

(149) As the Latin language has no article, it cannot distinguish between the apposition which defines and that which introduces a new predication. The context generally shows pretty clearly what is the meaning; thus, when we read: Æneas, Anchisæ filius. Albam condidit, it is obvious that Æneas is merely defined as the son of Anchises. But when we read: Cicero prætor legem Maniliam suasit, or pii orant taciti, it is plain that we refer to the condition or office of Cicero, at the time when he recommended the Manilian law, and to the manner in which the pious offer their prayers, so that we have in each case a secondary predicate. Sometimes this secondary predicate amounts to a mere adverb, as in the latter instance, and then it may have an adverb added; as: volat avia longe (Virg. Æn. x11. 480); and avius longe vagaris (Lucr. 11. 82); at other times it bears the main stress of the predication; as: verebar, ne molestus vobis intervenirem, 'I feared lest I should be troublesome to you by intruding.' Of course this becomes a tertiary predicate, if it is found in an oblique case; as: hunc quemadmodum victorem feremus? ' 'how shall we tolerate this man, as, or in case he becomes, the conqueror?' This prolepsis sometimes implies that the quality denoted by the adjective is conveyed to the object by the verb; as: colluere guttur mobile, 'to rinse the throat, so as to make it supple; and even in the nominative; as: stomachus flagitat immorsus refici, 'the stomach craves to be restored by being stimulated.'

OBS. The superlative primus is always predicated in this secondary form: Pericles primus adhibuit doctrinam, 'Pericles was the first to bring in learning;' Æsculapius, qui primus vulnus obligavisse dicitur, 'Æsculapius, who is said to have been the first to bind up a wound.'

## § 5. Prepositions construed with the Accusative.

(150) The following prepositions, all of which signify motion or extension, are construed with the accusative case:

Adversum (adversus), cis (citra), apud, ante, penesque, Intra, infra, contra, supra, post, circiter, inter, Circa (circum), ultra, juxta, erga, præter, et extra, Ob, prope, per, propter, versus, trans, pone, secundum, ad.

The following are construed with the accusative when they signify motion or extension, and with the ablative when they denote rest:

In, super, et subter, pro quâ sub crebrius exstat.

### § 6. Genitive, Dative, and Ablative.

(151) The Greek language enables us to see, that each of the cases had originally a simple meaning; thus, the accusative signified the end of motion or action; the genitive or ablative, which were identical, denoted the origin of motion; and the dative implied rest or presence. Consequently the accusative would be expressed in English by the preposition 'to' in the sense of 'towards,' or by the mere oblique case; the genitive or ablative, which are really the same case, by the prepositions 'of' or 'from;' and the dative by 'at,' or by 'to,' in its limiting sense of 'for.' In the Latin language, idiomatic usage has introduced considerable confusion in the genitive, ablative, and dative: for while the genitive and ablative have been divided into two distinct cases, with significations more or less inconsistent, the dative has been separated from all connexion with prepositions signifying locality or rest, and these have been transferred to the ablative, which ought to convey a strong expression of separation and movement. The only words which preserve the original use of the cases are the proper names of places and the words which have been mentioned above (128, vii. b, 147), to which may perhaps be added the adjectives in compounds like meridie, postridie, for medii die, posteri die. But even here an alteration in the forms has led to a want of discrimination, and we find practical rules which assign differences of construction to differences of declension. The truth is that domi, humi, Cypri, militiæ, Romæ, ruri, Carthagine, Athenis are equally locatives (that is, datives in i or is,) and domo, rure, Româ equally ablatives or genitives expressing motion from a place. So that we have the complete use of the cases in the three phrases:

domum Pompeii venit, 'he came to the house of Pompey.' Cæsaris virtus domi fuit militiæque cognita, 'Cæsar's excellence was known at home and abroad.'

cibaria domo attulit, 'he brought provisions from home.'

- Obs. 1. Domi and in domo differ in meaning; the former means 'at home,' the latter, 'in the house;' as: in domo furtum factum est, ab eo qui domi fuit, 'a theft was committed in the house by one who was at home there.'
- Obs. 2. The ablative alone is used as a locative in words denoting a measure of time; as: nemo mortalium omnibus horis sapit, 'no one of mortals is wise at all hours.'
- (152) From an alteration in the form, a genuine dative has been mistaken for an ablative in the construction of the impersonal phrases  $r\bar{e}$ -fert = rei fert, 'it contributes to the interest,' and interest, 'it is concerned about the business,' where rei is understood in the sense, in which the Latin verb is used as a substantive in English. In these phrases we have either

- (153) As a general rule, I. we may use the genitive in Latin, when 'of' is employed to signify 'partition' or 'relation,' and when 'at' or 'for' means 'price' or 'value,' stated indefinitely. II. We may use the dative in Latin, whenever 'to' or 'for' signifies 'limitation' or 'destination;' but when 'to' signifies 'motion to a place,' we must use the accusative with a preposition (147), and when it precedes a verb, it must be rendered by some form of the verb in Latin; and when 'for' implies 'a price,' it must be rendered by the genitive, if it is an indefinite, and by the ablative, if it is a definite statement. III. We may use the ablative in Latin, whenever 'by' signifies the 'cause;' whenever 'by' or 'with' denotes the 'instrument:' whenever 'in' denotes the 'manner' or 'the part affected; whenever 'in' or 'with' denotes 'materials' or 'provisions;' whenever 'at' or 'for' denotes 'a definite price; whenever 'from' denotes 'exclusion' or 'abstinence;' and whenever 'at' denotes a specific 'date' in time: but the ablative requires ab, when 'by' denotes 'an agent;' and except in dates, and in the words mentioned above (151), it cannot be used as a locative without the preposition in.

This general statement will explain the following special rules.

- (154) I. (a) The genitive denotes partition, as: nemo mortalium omnibus horis sapit, 'no one of (i. e. as a part of) mortals is wise at all hours.'
- (b) The genitive denotes crime or penalty, with an accusative of the person accused or punished; as:

accusat me furti, 'he accuses me of (i.e. concerning or in relation to) theft.'

The same rule applies to the impersonal verbs pænitet, tædet, piget, miseret, pudet, expressing sorrow, weariness, pity, and shame; as:

me non solum piget stultitiæ meæ, sed etiam pudet, 'I am not only weary of my folly, but even ashamed of it.'

Obs. We may also say: accusat me de furto, or furto alone.

- (c) The genitive denotes indefinite estimation, with the occasional exception of the ablatives: magno, plurimo, parvo, minimo, nihilo; as:
- quanti oryza empta est? parvo: 'for or at how much was the rice bought? for a small sum.'
- (d) Verbs of reminding take a genitive of the thing and an accusative of the person; as:

admonebat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis sue, 'he reminded one of his wants, another of his passions.'

Obs. For this gen. we may have the abl. with de, or an accusative.

(155) II. (a) The dative denotes limitation or destination; as:

Venus nupsit Vulcano, 'Venus put on the veil, (i. e. became a bride) to or for Vulcan.'

exitio est avidis mare nautis, 'the sea is for a destruction (i. e. destined to destroy) to greedy sailors.'

Hence the dative is used with some verbs, which

- imply the imposition of limits or restrictions, as impero, tempero, moderor, the two latter of which may also be followed by an accusative.
- (b) The dative denotes the agent, if we imply that a thing is to be done; as:
- restat Chremes, qui mihi exorandus est, 'Chremes remains, who is to be entreated by me (i. e. who for me to entreat).'
- (c) The dative denotes the object after verbs of threatening, forgiving, being enraged, &c., because these verbs limit some affection of the mind to a particular person; as:
- utrique mortem est minitatus, 'he threatened: what? death: to or for whom? to both.'
- adolescenti nihil est quod succenseam, 'there is no reason why I should feel anger: to, for, or in regard to whom? the young man.'
- (d) The dative is subjoined to verbs of annexing, mixing, &c.; as:
- forti miscebat mella Falerno, 'he mixed honey with strong Falernian wine.'
- (e) The dative signifies limitation after relative adjectives; as:
- Dis carus ipsis, 'dear: to whom, or in relation to whom? to the gods themselves.'
- (f) The dative is used either with adjectives or with verbs to denote advantage or its contrary (dativus commodi aut incommodi); as:
- Laomedonti magna facta est injuria, 'a great wrong was done to Laomedon.'
- virtus fructuosa aliis, ipsi laboriosa, 'virtue profitable to others, troublesome to itself.'
  - (156) III. (a) Any verb or adjective may be

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construed with an ablative, signifying the instrument, cause or manner of an action or object; and in this case we must take care never to put ab for 'by,' or cum for 'with;' as:

hi jaculis, illi certant defendere saxis, 'these endeavour to defend themselves with darts, the others with stones.'

sorte tud contentus abi, 'depart contented with your lot.'

But the agent is expressed by the ablative with ab; as:

Pompeius a Cæsare victus est, 'Pompey was conquered by Cæsar.'

- (b) The ablative of the part affected, and, poetically, the accusative (146) may be added to any verbs; as: micat auribus et tremit artus, 'he quivers in his ears and trembles as to his limbs.'
- (c) The ablative denotes materials, abundance, or provisions; as:

  amore abundas Antipho, 'you abound in love.'
- (d) The ablative denotes crime or penalty, with an accusative of the person; as: condemnabo eodem ego te crimine, 'I will condemn you of the same crime.'
- (e) The ablative of price is subjoined to verbs and adjectives which signify valuation or sale; as: viginti talentis unam orationem vendidit, 'he sold one speech for 20 talents.'
- dignus es odio, 'you are worthy of hatred.'

  (f) Verbs of separation, whether the
- (f) Verbs of separation, whether they denote abstinence or liberation, govern the ablative, which has a preposition when a person is indicated, and sometimes in other nouns also; as:

liberavit populum metu, 'he freed the people from fear.'

te ab eo vindico ac libero, 'I rescue and free you from him.'

Obs. The poets sometimes use the dative for the ablative of separation; as:

eripe te moræ, 'tear yourself from delay.'

This is a sort of dativus incommodi.

- (g) Any verb may be accompanied by an ablative absolute; as:
- me duce, tutus eris, 'with me for your leader, i. e. so long as I am your leader, you will be safe.'
- (h) The thing compared is either in the ablative, or in the same case after quam; as:
- vilius argentum est auro, 'gold being there, with gold there, or in comparison with gold, silver is less valuable.'
- ignoratio futurorum malorum melior est quam scientia, 'the ignorance of future misfortunes is better than the knowledge of them.'
- Obs. The abl. is rarely used after the comparative unless the latter stands either in the nom. or accus. case. But Horace says:

pane egeo, jam mellitis potiore placentis,
'I need bread, now more desirable than honied cakes.'

- (157) The gen. and abl. are commutable not only in expressions of crimination (154, b.) and of price or value (154, c.; 156, e.), but also where abundance and its contrary are signified (156, c.); as: implentur veteris Bacchi pinguisque ferinæ, 'they are filled with old wine and fat venison;' and, by a poetical imitation of the Greek idiom, after verbs of abstaining (156, f.); as: desine querelarum, 'desist from complaints.'
- (158) Certain verbs, which virtually include a phrase, are followed by a genitive of the object. Thus

verbs denoting pity, memory, or forgetfulness, may be followed by a genitive; as:

miserere laborum tantorum, 'pity such great afflictions.' flagitiorum suorum recordabitur, 'he will recollect his own crimes.'

But miseror generally takes the accusative, because miseror means 'to feel pity,' but miseror 'to show compassion.' And verbs expressing memory or forgetfulness are very often used with the accusative; as: si rite audita recordor, 'if I duly recollect what I have heard.'

(159) Potior, 'I am master of,' 'I possess,' takes either a genitive of the part (154, a.) or an ablative of abundance (156, c.); as:

Romani signorum et armorum potiti sunt, 'the Romans became masters of the standards and arms.'

egressi optatá potiuntur Troes arená, 'the Trojans having landed possess the wished for shore.'

- (160) Certain verbs, which are followed by the ablative, exhibit special applications of the preceding rules.
- (a) Fungor, which includes the root of fug-io, 'I flee,' as jungo involves the root of jug-um, signifies 'I make myself quit of, go through, get rid of, discharge, or perform,' and thus governs the ablative of liberation (156, f.); as:
- justitiæ fungatur officiis, 'let him discharge [himself from] the duties of justice.'
- (b) Utor, 'I use,' and fruor, 'I enjoy,' are correlative terms, (as appears from the compound usufructus), and take the ablative of the materials, like potior (156, c.; 159); as:

Hannibal, cum victoriá posset uti, frui maluit, 'Hannibal, though he was in a situation to get profit from his victory, preferred to enjoy it.'

- (c) Vescor and pascor, 'I take food for myself,' are followed by an abl. of the materials; as:
- di nec escis nec potionibus vescuntur, 'the gods do not live on meat or drink.'
- frondibus et victu pascuntur simplicis herbæ, 'they feed on boughs and a diet of plain grass.'
- (d) Dignor, 'I think worthy,' and muto, 'I change,' take an ablative of price (156, e.); as:
- haud equidem tali me dignor honore, 'I do not think myself worthy of (do not estimate myself at) such an honour.'
- mutat quadrata rotundis, 'he changes square things for round.'
- (e) Supersedeo, 'I do without or abstain from,' takes an ablative of abstinence (156, f.); as:
- Cæsar prælio supersedere statuit, 'Cæsar resolved to abstain from, decline, or do without, a battle.'
- (f) When nitor signifies 'I am supported by,' it takes the abl. of the instrument (156,  $\alpha$ .); when it means 'I lean or depend upon,' it takes the abl. with in; as:
- nititur hastā, 'he is supported by a spear.'
  in vitā Pompeii nitebatur salus civitatis, 'the safety
  of the state depended on Pompey.'
- (g) Ven-eo for venum-eo, 'I go for sale,' i.e. 'I am sold,' and vapulo, 'I howl or cry out (οἰμώζω) for pain,' i.e. 'I am beaten,' are considered as passive verbs, and take the ablative of the agent with ab (156, a.); as:
- respondit se malle a cive spoliari quam ab hoste venire, 'he replied that he would rather be robbed by a fellow-citizen than be sold by an enemy.'

testis rogatus est, an ab reo fustibus vapulásset, 'the witness was asked whether he had been beaten with clubs by the defendant.'

# § 7. Prepositions construed with the Ablative or Genitive.

(161) The following prepositions, all of which denote rest or derivation, are construed with the ablative: De, a (quod et ab), cum, absque, e (quod et ex), præ, pro, sine, coram.

The following prepositions are construed with the ablative when they signify rest, and with the accusative when they indicate motion or extension:

In, super, et subter, pro quâ sub crebrius exstat.

The ablative takes the separative prepositions, a, ab, absque, de, e, ex, præ, pro, sine, and coram, in its proper sense of ablation or removal from a point; and it takes the locative prepositions cum, in, super, sub and subter, in the locative sense of rest in a place, which it has irregularly assumed.

(162) Instar, 'after the likeness of,' ergo, 'on account of,' and  $grati\hat{a}$ , 'for the sake of,' are followed by the genitive, like the Greek  $\delta(\kappa\eta\nu)$ ,  $\tilde{\epsilon}_{\nu\epsilon\kappa a}$  and  $\chi \hat{a}\rho\nu$ , to which they correspond; as:

instar montis equus, 'a horse like a mountain.'

donatur virtutis ergo, 'he is rewarded on account of his virtue.'

majorum dolorum effugiendorum gratiá, 'for the sake of avoiding greater evils.'

We have also: med gratid, hac gratid, &c.

(163) Tenus, 'as far as, up or down to,' takes the abl. singular, but the genitive or more rarely the ablative plural, and always follows its case; as:

- capulo tenus, 'up to the hilt;' crurum tenus, 'down to the legs.
- of, palam, 'in the presence of,' procul, 'far from,' simul, 'together with,' are sometimes used as prepositions with the ablative case. Clam is also used with the genitive and even with the accusative.
- (165) Verbs and adjectives, compounded with the separative prepositions a, ab, abs, de, e, ex, pro, and se- (for sine), are construed with the ablative case; as:

detrudunt naves scopulo, 'they push down the ships from the rock.

extorris patrid, 'banished from his native country.'

These prepositions are often repeated with the ablative: as:

abstinuerunt a vino, 'they abstained from wine.'

(166) Verbs compounded with the prepositions or inseparable prefixes ad, ante, circum, cum, in, inter, ob, post, pro, præ, sub, super, dis-, and re-, are frequently construed with the dative, when the English 'to' or 'for' can be introduced into the translation: as: proponite ora ipsa oculis, 'place his very countenance before your eyes,' i. e. propose it to your eyes for contemplation.

## The Vocative and its Substitutes.

(167) The vocative is the case of allocution, exhortation, or exclamation. In the poets it is frequently used with the interjection O; in prose this interjection is not prefixed in merely addressing a person, but is reserved for exclamations of joy, anger or surprise. In prose the vocative does not stand first in the sentence, except in solemn addresses, and in expressions of strong emotion.

Obs. 1. If an adjective or participle is added to the vocative it is properly in the same case; as:

Mæcenas, atavis edite regibus.

There are rare instances to the contrary; as:

Succinctus patriá quondam, Crispine, papyro.

Obs. 2. By a very singular usage, the vocative of the adjective is made to agree with the nominative tu; as:

Stemmate quod Tusco ramum millesime ducis, Censoremne tuum vel quod trabeate salutas? (Pers. 111. 27, 28).

This is regularly the case in the idiomatic use of  $macte = magis \ aucte$ ; thus we have:  $macte \ virtute \ esto$ , 'increase in virtue' (Hor. 1. Serm. ii. 31);  $macte \ nova$  virtute puer, 'go on and prosper in your young valour' (Virg. En. 1x. 641). And even in an oblique sentence, as: juberem [te]  $macte \ virtute \ esse$  (Liv. 11. 12).

- (168) (a) In addresses the most common substitute for the vocative is the nominative; as: audi tu, populus Albanus (Liv. 1. 24). But in exclamations the vocative and accusative are used indifferently after O, heu, and proh; as:
- O formose puer, nimium ne crede colori, 'O beautiful boy, trust not too much to your complexion;' but:
- O fortunatos nimium agricolas, 'O too fortunate husbandmen.'
- Heu pietas, heu prisca fides, 'Ah! piety, ah! old fashioned faith;' but: heu stirpem invisam, 'ah! hated race.'
- Proh Deûm atque hominum fidem, 'alas for our reliance on gods and men!' but: pro sancte Jupiter, 'Oh! hallowed Jupiter!'

- (b) Hei and vee are followed by the dative of limitation; as: hei mihi! 'ah! woe's me;' vee misero mihi, 'alas! for me wretched.'
- (c) En (ecce), which calls attention to an object, takes the nominative as a sort of exclamation, but the accusative as an object to be looked at; thus:

Ecce tibi Italiæ tellus, 'here is the land of Italy for you;' en quatuor aras, 'see these four altars.'

#### CHAPTER III.

### MOODS AND TENSES OF VERBS.

## § 9. Construction of the Tenses in the Finite Moods.

(169) A COMPLETE system of tenses includes three pairs of verb-forms. For a predication of tense must refer either to the time of speaking, which does not need definition, or to some other point of time, which has to be defined. In the former case, the tense is called definite or determinate; in the latter, indefinite or indeterminate. Now, besides this, every predication of tense must express either simultaneity, i.e. at the same time, or at the present; posteriority, i. e. afterwards, or in the future; or anteriority, i.e. before, or in the past. According to this view of the matter, which is fully established by the Greek language (see Complete Greek Grammar, articles 429 and following), the Latin system of tenses is defective. For the perfect has to serve both as the definite tense of anteriority, and as the indefinite tense of posteriority. Thus we have:

#### Definite Tenses.

Simultaneity: scribo, 'I am writing'—at the present time.

Posteriority: scribam, 'I shall write'—after the present time.

Anteriority: scripsi, 'I have written'—before the present time.

#### Indefinite Tenses.

Simultaneity: scribebam, 'I was writing'—at a given time.

Posteriority: scripsi, 'I wrote'—after a given time. Anteriority: scripseram, 'I had written'—before a given time.

Moreover, as we have seen, in all cases where there is no future in -bo, the tense used for the expression of definite anteriority is really the present subjunctive, and denotes, as will be shown directly, rather probability than futurity.

Obs. Although the reduplicated form corresponds to the true preterite in Greek, which is also involved in the compound preterite with fui appended, whereas the perfect in -si answers to the Greek agrist in  $-\sigma a$ , there is practically no difference in the syntactical usage of these forms, and their absolute identity is further developed in the sameness of their person-endings, which is probably a subsequent accommodation. Nor is there any difference in use between the two forms of the future.

- (170) The following examples will show the usage of the tenses in the indicative mood.
- (I.) Present: Deus mundum conservat, 'God preserves (i. e. is still continuing to preserve) the world.'

Jandudum ausculto, 'I am all this while continuing to listen,' i.e. I have long been doing so.

- Zeno aliter judicat, 'Zeno determines otherwise,' i. e. in an extant record of his sentiments, or in a passage now before us.
- (II.) Imperfect: Socrates dicebat (or dicere solebat) omnes in eo quod scirent satis esse eloquentes, 'Socrates was saying or used to say (at a specified time, namely, while he lived and spoke) that all men were sufficiently eloquent in that wherein they had knowledge.'

Romæ quotannis bini consules creabantur, 'every year two consuls at a time used to be created at Rome.' i. e. it was a continued custom.

- Prælio se expediebant, 'they were preparing themselves for the battle,' i. e. they began to do so at the specified time.
- (III.) Perfect (a) as a orist, or historical perfect: Vixit inæqualis clavum ut mutaret in horas, 'he lived so inconsistently (a mere statement of a past occurrence) that he changed the fashion of his robe every hour.'
- With an imperfect following: Quo tempore Philippus Græciam evertit, etiam tum Athenæ gloriā litterarum et artium florebant, 'at the time when Philip overthrew Greece (a mere statement of a past occurrence, happening at a specified time, and subsequent to prior events expressed or presumed), even then (at the time) Athens was flourishing in the renown of literature and art.'
- (b) As a true perfect, expressing the continuance of an action up to the present time, and its completion now: Ille potens sui lætusque degit, cui licet in diem dixisse—Vixi, 'he lives master of himself and happy, who can say, at the end of every day—I have lived,' i. e. I have completed a period of living; compare this with the first example of

the aorist perfect, and with the converse saying of the Emperor Titus: diem perdidi, 'I have lost a day.' So also: fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium et ingens gloria Dardanidum, 'we have been'—but are no more. Sometimes this usage is fully explained by the context; as: is mos usque ad hoc tempus permansit, 'that custom has continued up to this day.'

Obs. The present may sometimes be used instead of the imperfect or historical perfect, and even in the same sentence with the other tense; as: eo postquam Cæsar pervenit, obsides, arma, servos qui ad eos perfugissent poposcit: dum ea conquiruntur et conferuntur, nocte intermissá circiter hominum millia IV. ex castris Helvetiorum egressi ad Rhenum finesque Germanorum contenderunt, where conquiruntur and conferuntur are used instead of the imperfect by the side of the historical perfect. Exspectabant omnes, quo tandem Verres progressurus esset, quum repente proripi hominem ac deligari jubet, where jubet is used instead of the historical perfect by the side of the imperfect.

(IV.) Pluperfect: Quum esset Demosthenes, multi oratores magni et clari fuerunt, et antea fuerant, nec postea defecerunt, 'they were at the time when Demosthenes flourished, they had been before, and were not wanting afterwards,' (where the expression of anteriority stands between historical statements of fact).

Quum ego illum vidi, jam consilium mutaverat, 'when I saw him he had already changed his mind' (the change was anterior to my seeing him).

Irruerant Danai et tectum omne tenebant, 'the Greeks had rushed in (previously) and were occupying (at the time) all the building.'

Daphnis sub ilice consederat, compulerantque greges Corydon et Thyrsis in unum; huc mihi caper deerraverat; atque ego Daphnin adspicio, 'Daphnis had already taken his seat under the oak; Corydon and Thyrsis had already driven their flocks together; my he-goat had wandered to this spot; and as a consequence of this previous state of things, I see' (i.e. I saw, according to the last observation) 'Daphnis.'

(V.) Future: Tu bibes Cœcubam uvam, 'you shall drink the Cœcuban wine' (which conveys a per-

mission or a promise).

Quando Veritas ullum inveniet parem? 'when will Truth find any one equal to him?' (where the whole of future time is excluded from the range of choice).

Illo tempore Respublica florebit, 'at that time the Commonwealth will flourish' (where a subsequent event is predicted).

Obs. Learners must observe that the Latin language can carry the future indicative through all the members of a period, whereas in English the sign of the future is expressed only in the leading sentence. Thus we say: profecto beati erimus, quum corporibus relictis cupiditatum erimus expertes, 'truly we shall be happy, when having left our bodies we are, i.e. shall be, free from passionate desires;' naturam si sequemur ducem, nunquam aberrabimus, 'if we follow nature as our guide, we shall never go wrong;' ut voles me esse, ita ero, 'I will be, as you wish.'

The general meaning of the different moods has been already given (Part I. § 15), and the above instances will sufficiently illustrate the use of the indicative.

(171) The imperative mood of the second person is either a direct command or an intreaty, and in some verbs, which are limited to this mood, it has become a mere interjection (104, h). Fac and cura are often

used periphrastically with ut. The third person of the imperative is generally employed in laws, in imitations of the legal style, and in prohibitions with ne. The following are examples:

Patres conscripti, subvenite misero mihi, ite obviam injuriæ, 'O Senators, patrician and elected, assist unhappy me, go forth to meet wrong-doing.'

Fac venius or ut venius, 'make a point of coming.'

Cura, ut valeas, 'take care of your health.'

Regio imperio duo sunto, iique consules appellantor, 'let there be two with kingly authority, and let them be called consuls.'

Servus meus Sticho liber esto, 'let my slave Sticho be free' (in a will).

Ter uncti transnanto Tiberim somno quibus est opus alto, 'let those who need sound sleep anoint themselves and swim thrice across the Tiber' (in an imitation of the style of laws and medical prescriptions).

Et ille, 'Audite vero, audite,' inquit, 'and he says, "Hear ye, hear ye" (in a ludicrous imitation of scholastic pomposity, Cic. de Orat. 11. 7, 28).

Nocturna sacrificia ne sunto, 'let there be no sacrifices by night.'

- (172) The tenses of the subjunctive are used as follows:
- (I.) The present is a kind of future, for it denotes the *probable* occurrence of something after the time of speaking. Hence, while it is so nearly identical with the form which in most verbs is used for the future, the subjunctive has no simple future in the active, and no future at all in the passive voice. The learner must particularly observe that the possibility, expressed by the subjunctive in Latin, is always hypothetical, and that the direct statement of permission or power must

always be made by *licet* or *possum* with the infinitive mood, see (177) Obs. 2. Thus described the present subjunctive is (a) optative, (b) deliberative, (c) hortative, (d) potential, (e) conditional or (f) dependent, in each case with a presumption of possibility, as the following examples will show.

- (a) Optative; with or without utinam, and in negative wishes with ne; as: salvus sis, or utinam salvus sis, 'may you be well'—which is not only desired but possible; ne sis patruus mihi, 'I wish you would not act as an uncle to me'—abstain from the harshness which you may avoid. (Optative without ar in Greek).
- (b) Deliberative; as: eloquar an sileam? 'shall I speak out or hold my tongue?' (Conjunctive in Greek).
- (c) Hortative; as: imitemur majores nostros, 'let us imitate our ancestors.' (Conjunctive in Greek).
- (d) Potential; either in the apodosis or second clause of a conditional sentence (128, xvi. 3); as: ego, si Scipionis desiderio me moveri negem, mentiar, 'if I deny (i.e. shall deny) that I am affected by a longing for Scipio, I shall speak falsely,' where there is a mere assumption; similarly: tu si hic sis, aliter sentias, 'if you were,—which you are not but might be—in my situation, you would think otherwise:' or by itself without an expressed condition; as: dicat aliquis, 'some one may here say.' Also in interrogatives; as: quis dubitet? 'who would doubt?' (Greek Optative with a).
- (e) Conditional; either in the protasis or first clause of the conditional sentence; as in the examples just given: or followed by a future indicative; as: si quid habeat, dabit (128, xvi. 2); or by itself, as containing a supposition; thus: vendat ædes vir bonus propter aliqua vitia, 'suppose a good man sells a house on account of some fault,' and so on through the pas-

- sage (Cic. de Officiis, 111. 13); (Greek optative with  $\epsilon i$  and without  $\tilde{a}\nu$ ). The conditional may amount to an optative; as: O mihi præteritos referat si Jupiter annos, 'O if Jupiter would only give me back the years that are gone!' (Sc also in Greek: Gr. Gr. Art. 516, b.).
- (f) Dependent; with ut or ne or some relative word after the present, the true perfect, and future of the main clause; as: scribo, scripsi, scribam, ut discas, 'I am writing, I have written, I shall write, to the end that you may learn;' danda opera est, ut ea res ne obsit reipublicæ, 'care must be taken, to the end that the business in question may do no harm to the state;' vereor ne veniat, 'I fear lest he come,' i.e. his coming is the end to which my fears tend—the end which I would prohibit; vereor ut veniat, 'I fear lest he will not come,' i.e. how he can come; for I foresee an obstacle. (Greek conjunctive after  $i\nu a$ ,  $\delta \pi \omega s$ ,  $\omega s$ , and sometimes the future indicative with  $\delta \pi \omega s$ ).
- (II.) The imperfect indicates that the probable occurrence is past and must be foregone; it is:
- (a) Optative, to imply that the wish cannot now be realised; as: utinam salvus esses, 'I wish you were (what you are not) in good health;' illud utinam no vere scriberem, 'I wish I was not writing that sentiment with truth.' If non is used for no it must be closely connected with the predicative. (Greek indicative with εἰ, εἰ γάρ, εἴθε: Gr. Gr. Art. 517).
- (b) Hortative, chiefly in orations oblique; as: imitarentur majores suos, 'let them, he said, imitate their ancestors.'
- (c) Potential; either in the apodosis (128, xvi. 4, a.); as: si scirem, dicerem, 'if I knew (which is not the case), I would speak: or by itself; as: nollem factum, 'I would not like it done.' (Greek imperfect indicative with av).

- (d) Conditional, in the protasis of the last case, and sometimes followed by the imperfect indicative; as: si non alium longe jactaret odorem, laurus erat, 'if it did not emit a widely different smell, it were a laurel.' (Greek imperfect indicative with  $\epsilon l$ , and without  $\delta \nu$ ). O si, with the imperfect subjunctive, might express an impossible wish.
- (e) Dependent, with ut or ne, or some relative word, after the imperfect, aorist perfect, and pluperfect of the main clause; as: scribebam, scripsi, scripseram, ut disceres, 'I was writing, I wrote, I had written to the end that you might learn.' (Greek optative after τσα, δπως, ώς).
- (III.) The perfect subjunctive is sometimes called the futurum exactum, and referred to the indicative; but all its functions are as a tense of the subjunctive mood. As the subjunctive itself is a kind of future, it is quite natural that the perfect subjunctive should be a sort of future perfect, and in fact it does correspond, in the protasis, to the Greek aorist conjunctive; as: si quid feceris = ἐάν τι ποιήσης, 'if you shall have done anything.' It is:
- (a) Potential, either as the apodosis of a simple future, present, or perfect, or perfect subjunctive; or by itself; thus we have in an apodosis: quum tu hæc leges, ego fortasse eum convenero, 'when you read these words, I shall perhaps have had a meeting with him;' si plane occidimus, ego omnibus meis exitio fuero, 'if we have altogether fallen, I shall have been (i.e. I shall prove in the result) a destruction to all my friends;' qui Antonium oppresserit, is bellum confecerit, 'he who shall have overthrown Antony, will, by that very act, have put an end to the war.' By itself: ego de me videro, 'I shall be found to have looked after myself;' si pergis, abiero, 'if you go on, I shall depart at once;' tu invita mulieres; ego accivero pueros, 'do you invite

- the ladies; I will, before that, send for the boys,' i. e. 'I shall have done it, ere you have finished your part of the business;' hoc sine ullá dubitatione confirmaverim, 'I shall have said this without the least hesitation,' in reference to a statement which he is actually about to make. Also in interrogations; as: quistulerit Gracchos de seditione querentes? 'who will, for a moment, tolerate the Gracchi complaining of sedition?
- (b) Conditional, either as the protasis, in the case just mentioned, and with a perfect and simple future in the apodosis, or by itself; thus we have: si quis bona carmina condiderit, si quis opprobriis dignum latraverit, solventur risu tabulæ, tu missus abibis, 'if any one shall have made good verses, if any one shall have inveighed against a man worthy of reproach, laughter will do away with the severity of the sentence, and you will get off with impunity;' dixerit Epicurus, 'suppose Epicurus shall have said.'
- (c) Dependent, after past and future tenses; as: Hortensius ardebat dicendi cupiditate sic, ut in nullo unquam flagrantius studium viderim, 'Hortensius was inflamed with a desire for oratorical distinction to such an extent, that I never have seen greater eagerness;' Epaminondas paupertatem adeo facile perpessus est, ut de republicá nihil præter gloriam ceperit, 'Epaminondas bore poverty so easily, that he took nothing from the state except glory;' adnitar, ne frustra vos hanc spem de me conceperitis, 'I will do my best, to the end that you may not have conceived this hope about me in vain.'
- (d) Prohibitive, when a single act is forbidden, just as the aorist of the conjunctive is used in Greek; ne dixeris, 'do not say at all;' tu ne quæsieris, 'have done with inquiring.'\*
- See Gr. Gr. art. 433. Bishop Andrewes on Matt. iii. 7, 8:
   the word is not bring forth at this time, now; then it should be

## (IV.) The pluperfect subjunctive is:

- (a) Optative, to imply that the wish could not have been realised; as: utinam ne Phormioni id suadere in mentem incidisset, 'I wish it had never come into Phormio's head (as it did), to recommend that course; hoc utinam tibi a principio placuisset, 'I wish you had liked this from the first.
- (b) Potential, in the apodosis to another pluperfect (128, xvi. 4, b.); as: si voluissem plura, non negasses, 'if I had wished for more (which I did not), you would not have refused; but the protasis is sometimes not expressed; as: summôsses omnes, 'you would have put aside all competitors'-if you had had my assistance.
- (c) Conditional, in the protasis to the former case, and sometimes with the perfect or pluperfect of the indicative in the apodosis; as: Antoni gladios potuit contemnere, si sic omnia dixisset, 'he had it in his power to despise (as an historical fact) the swords of Antony, if he had (which he did not) spoken every thing in this strain; me truncus illapsus cerebro sustulerat, nisi Faunus ictum dextrá levásset, 'if Faunus had not parried the blow with his right hand, the trunk of a tree, having fallen on my head, had slain me on the spot.'
- Dependent, after an historical perfect; as: Sol Phaethonti dixit se facturum esse, quicquid optasset, the Sun said to Phaethon that he would perform whatever wish he had conceived.'
- (V.) The future subjunctive, which occurs only in the active, is found in dependent sentences after the present and perfect indicative or subjunctive, and the

ποιείτε, in the present; but it is ...ποιήσατε, in the acrist.... It signifies rather have done bringing forth, than bring forth presently,' (Vol. 1. p. 430.)

imperative; as: quotusquisque tam patiens est, ut velit discere quod in usu non sit habiturus, 'how few there are so patient as to be willing to learn what they are not likely to want;' defectiones solis prædictæ sunt quæ, quantæ, quando futuræ sint, 'it has been predicted of what kind, to what extent and when there will be eclipses of the sun;' quid sit futurum cras, fuge quærere, 'avoid asking what is likely to take place tomorrow.'

## § 10. Distinctive uses of the Indicative and Subjunctive.

- (173) The great difficulty in Latin composition is the correct employment of the indicative and subjunctive moods, especially after relatives and relative particles. The simplest way of dealing with the subject is to consider as separate questions: (1.) When must we use the indicative? (11.) When must we use the subjunctive? (111.) When may we use either mood, and with what difference of signification?
- (174) I. (a) We must use the indicative in all direct statements; as: sylvestrem tenui musam meditaris avenā, 'you are practising woodland music on a slender reed.'
- (b) We must use the indicative in all relative sentences, whenever the antecedent is definite, so that the clause describes or serves as an epithet; as: de iis autem, quos ipsi vidimus, neminem fere prætermittimus eorum, quos aliquando dicentes vidimus, 'of those, however, whom we have seen ourselves, we pass over scarcely any one of them, whom we have at some time or other seen speaking.'
- Obs. 1. It is to be observed that the antecedent may be definite, and the relative sentence descriptive, although all the particulars in the description may not

be fixed; thus: quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes, 'whatever that particular, definite thing—the wooden horse—may be, I fear the Greeks even when they offer us gifts.'

- Obs. 2. A definite antecedent is presumed, and therefore the indicative is used, in such idiomatic phrases as: quæ tua est virtus, 'such is your virtue;' quod scribis, 'as to what you write.'
- (c) We must use the indicative after ut in all mere comparisons; as: ut orator de iis rebus..., ut heri Crassus dicebat, optime potest dicere, 'as an orator, as Crassus was saying yesterday, can speak best' (Cic. de Orat. 11. 9, 37).
- (175) II. (a) We must use the subjunctive in all expressions of supposition or possibility, as opposed to statements of fact; consequently, in all the optative, potential, and prohibitory clauses, which have been given under the separate tenses.
- (b) We must use the subjunctive after relatives and relative particles, whenever the antecedent is vague or indefinite, so that the clause does not define or describe, but is dependent for its meaning on something in the main sentence. Thus the subjunctive appears:
- (1) In all dependent questions after relatives, interrogatives, and the particles enumerated above, where other examples are given (105, b.); as: quis hoc fecit? 'who did these things?' nescio, quis hoc fecerit, 'I know not who has done these things;' sope ne utile quidem est scire quid futurum sit, 'it is often not even profitable to know, what is about to be.' But nescio quis is often used either as a parenthesis or as a periphrasis for the nominative, and is therefore followed by the indicative mood; as: nescio quid majus nascitur Iliade, 'some poem (I know not exactly what) is

coming forth, which will surpass the Iliad; nescio quis teneros oculus mihi fascinat agnos, some evil eye (I know not whose) is bewitching the lambs to my sorrow (see 174, Obs. 1). In Virgil, Bucol. III. 106, some MSS, and editions read:

Dic, quibus in terris inscripti nomina regum Nascuntur flores.

which, if it stands, must be a direct question; 'tell me—in what lands do such flowers grow?' but the true reading is nascantur, as we have in the preceding line: dic, quibus in terris pateat, and the question in each case is indirect.

- (2) In all final sentences, i. e. those which express an end, purpose or result, and its prohibitions, after the conjunctions mentioned above, and the relative pronoun used as a substitute for them; after ut or ne; as:
- edimus ut vivamus; non vivimus ut edamus, 'we eat to the end that we may live, we do not live in order that we may eat;'
- metuo ne dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, 'I fear, lest, while I am wishing to lessen my trouble, I shall increase it;'
- adulatores, si quem laudant, vereri se dicunt, ut illius facta verbis consequi possint, 'flatterers, if they praise any one, say they fear that they will not be able to express his actions in their words;'
- after quo, quominus, quin; as:
- legem brevem esse oportet, quo facilius ab imperitis teneatur, 'a law ought to be short in order that it may the more easily be remembered by the unlearned.'
- nihil tam difficile est quin quærendo investigari possit, 'nothing is so difficult, that it cannot be discovered by inquiry.'

Parmenio regem deterrere voluit quominus medicamentum biberet, 'Parmenio wished to deter the king, to the end that he should not drink the medicine.'

after qui = ut is; as:

- Clusini legatos Romam, qui auxilium a senatu peterent, misere, 'the people of Clusium sent ambassadors, to the end, or with the view, that they should ask assistance from the senate.'
- (3) In all illative or intensive sentences, after ut or qui, whether the relative precedes or not, provided only that we can render qui by 'such or such a kind that;' as:

Epaminondas fuit disertus (or tam disertus), ut nemo ei par esset, 'Epaminondas was so eloquent, that no one was a match for him.'

nunc dicis aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, 'now you are saying something of such a kind that (tale ut) it pertains to the subject.'

To this rule belong all such phrases as: quis sum cujus aures lædi nefas sit? = num talis sum ut. &c.: major sum quam cui possit fortuna nocere = major quam talis ut mihi, &c.; nemo est qui nesciat = nemo est talis ut nesciat; non est quod invideas = non est tale ut invideas; non quo haberem quod scriberem, sed, &c. = non ita ut haberem, &c.; inventi sunt multi, qui parati essent = tales ut parati essent; quis est qui non oderit? = talis ut non oderit; o fortunate adolescens, qui inveneris = o tali fortund, ut inveneris; and after dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus, unus, solus, the relative is equivalent to talis ut with a demonstrative; as: indignus eras qui faceres injuriam = non conveniebat dignitati tuæ ut faceres, non talis eras ut faceres. With regard to such phrases as est qui, sunt qui, it is to be remarked that if est qui or sunt qui is to be taken as one word equivalent to 'some one,' 'some person,' it will be followed by the indicative like nescio quis (above,

- 175, b, 1): but if it means: 'there is a person or there are persons so constituted or qualified as to do such and such things,' it must be followed by the subjunctive; thus we have: sunt quos curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse juvat, 'some persons delight in the chariot-races at Olympia;' but: sunt qui censeant una animum et corpus occidere, 'there are some persons so constituted that (tales ut) they think that the soul and body perish together.'
- (4) In oblique narration, when the relative sentence contains the words or reasons of others; as:
- Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventutem, 'Socrates was accused of corrupting the young men' (i.e. the accuser said so);
- Aristides of eam causam expulsus est patria, quod præter modum justus esset, 'Aristides was expelled from his country simply because, as they said, he was too just.'

And especially in relative sentences dependent on an accusative with an infinitive, although, in the direct sentence, the verbs following the relative would stand in the indicative (128, x1.); compare the direct and oblique expression of the same sentiments in Cicero and Quintilian:

Ars earum rerum est, quæ sciuntur; oratoris omnis actio opinionibus non scientiâ continetur; nam et apud eos dicimus qui nesciunt, et ea dicimus quæ nescimus ipsi. (De Oratore, 11.7).

Artem earum rerum esse quæ sciantur; oratoris omnem actionem opinione non scientià contineri; quia et apud eos dicat qui nesciant, et ipse dicat aliquando quod nesciat. (Inst. Orat. 11. 17, 37).

(5) In narratives, when repeated action is signified by the relative sentence (see Gr. Gr. Art. 580); as: ut quisque maxime laboraret locus, aut ipse occurrebat aut

aliquos mittebat, 'as each post was most in peril, (so often) he either came up himself, or sent others.

quemcunque lictor prehendisset, tribunus mitti jubebat, 'as often as the lictor had seized a man, so often the tribune ordered him to be let go.'

But quoties takes the indicative: see Virg. Æn. x11. 483.

(6) In comparisons, after quasi, tanquam, ac si, ceu, velut, signifying 'just as if,' and dummodo, dum, modo, signifying 'provided only,' when possibility, as distinguished from reality, is supposed or assumed; as: quasi id curem! 'just as if I care for that!'

tanquam Asia sit clausa, sic nihil perfertur ad nos, ' just as if Asia were closed, no news reaches us.'

oderint, dum metuant, 'let them hate, provided only they fear.'

- dummodo ne quid imminuat ejus gloriæ, quam consecuti sumus, provided only that it detracts nothing from that renown, which we have obtained.'
- (176) III. We may use either the indicative or the subjunctive in the following cases, but with the distinctions of meaning which will be indicated.
- (1) In conditional sentences, after si, nisi, &c. the indicative expresses possibility without any uncertainty, but the subjunctive expresses uncertainty, mere assumption, or impossibility (128, xvi.). In such phrases as: nemo saltat sobrius, nisi forte insanit, 'no one dances when sober, unless perchance he is deranged,' the possibility is taken for granted. And thus fortasse, 'perhaps,' always takes the indicative, but forsitan and forsan, with the same meaning, though a different application, are always followed by the subjunctive and frequently by the perfect; thus: ego fortasse vaticinor, 'perhaps I am prophesying,' where the possibility is assured; but: forsitan quæratis, 'you may perhaps ask,' forsitan aliquis dixerit, 'some one may perchance

have said,' where there is a mere assumption, as in quærat, dixerit aliquis (above, 172, 1. d. 111. b.).

- (2) In temporal sentences (a) quum or ubi or ut, 'when,' postquam, 'after,' and simulac, 'as soon as,' are always followed by the indicative, when a particular or definite time is denoted; as:
- qui non propulsat injuriam a suis, quum potest, injuste facit, 'he acts unjustly who does not repel injury from his friends, when (i.e. on those definite occasions when) he has the power.'

ut sumus in Ponto ter frigore constitit Ister, 'since we have been in Pontus the Danube has stood frozen three times.'

ubi is finem fecit, 'when he made an end.'

But the imperfect or pluperfect of the subjunctive is always used after quum or ubi, 'when,' if we wish to indicate not only the time, but a necessarily antecedent circumstance. In this case we may often render the phrase by the English participle; as: quum videret, 'seeing' or 'upon seeing;' quum vidisset, 'having seen' or 'in consequence of his having seen.' Thus:

- in Cumano quum essem, venit ad me Hortensius, 'during my stay in his neighbourhood, as a sort of consequence of my being there, Hortensius came to see me.'
- Alexander, quum interemisset Clitum, vix manus a se abstinuit, 'Alexander, having killed Clitus, as a result or consequence, was all but laying violent hands on himself.'
- id ubi dixisset, hastam emittebat, 'having first said this' or 'as soon as ever he had said this, he proceeded to throw his spear.'
- (b) Antequam and privaquam are used with the indicative when there is merely a mark of tense and no hypothetical connexion, but we have the subjunctive

when the preceding event is supposed to be in some sort the cause of the subsequent; thus:

tempestas minatur antequam surgat, 'a tempest threatens before it rises' (but if there is to be a tempest at all, it must rise).

medico priusquam conetur ægro adhibere medicinam, natura corporis cognoscenda est, 'the physician must learn the nature of the body before he attempts to give medicine to the sick' (where a condition is involved); but: omnia experiri certum est priusquam pereo, 'I am resolved to try every thing before I am ruined' (a consummation, which I hope to avoid).

neque prius fugere destiterunt, quam ad Rhenum pervenerunt, 'they did not leave off running away, until they got to the Rhine' (a mere mark of time).

And we may say either antequam dicam or antequam dicere instituo after a future (cf. Philipp. 1. 1, with pro Murena, 1. 1), because the latter is a periphrasis of the subjunctive present.

(c) Donec, quoad, 'until,' 'as long as,' and dum, 'until,' 'while,' 'as long as,' take the indicative when they merely indicate continuance in time; but if they imply a cause or condition, and so approximate to the other meaning of dum, they are followed by the subjunctive; as:

Priami dum regna manebant, 'while, as long as, during the time that, the kingdom of Priam lasted.'

Mile in senatu fuit ille die, quoad senatus dimissus est, 'Mile was in the senate on that day until the senate was adjourned.'

donec rediit Marcellus, silentium fuit, 'the silence lasted until Marcellus returned.'

#### but:

haud desinam donec perfecero, 'I will not leave off

until I shall have accomplished it' (I will do so only on that proviso).

tertia dum regnantem viderit ætas, 'until the third age

shall have seen him reigning.'

- exspectas fortasse dum hæc dicat, 'you are waiting perhaps until he says this' (it is the condition or cause of your patience).
- (3) In causal sentences (a) quum, 'since,' 'because,' is followed by a subjunctive when the circumstances are intimately connected, so that the sentence may be rendered by our participle (as above, 176, 2); but it takes the indicative when the cause is introduced as an independent fact; thus:
- quum vita sine amicis insidiarum et metus plena sit, ratio ipsa monet amicitias comparare, 'since life without friends is (or 'life being') full of treachery and fear, reason itself warns us to form friendships.'
- gratulor tibi, quum upud Dolabellam tantum vales, 'I congratulate you, because (as a fact) you have so much influence with Dolabella.'
- (b) Quod, quia, quoniam, quandoquidem, which are much more frequently used than quum in the case just mentioned, take the indicative except in the case stated above (175, b, 4), when the cause is assigned to the opinion of some other person, so that the sentence is oblique; thus: fecisti mihi pergratum quod Serapionis librum mihi misisti, 'you have obliged me by sending the book of Serapion;' but: hic tu me accusas quod me afflictem, 'here you accuse me because (as you say) I afflict myself.'
- (c) Quippe qui, and ut or utpote qui generally take the subjunctive; as: Plato a Dionysio violatus erat, quippe quem venumdari jussisset, 'Plato had been illused by Dionysius, for he had ordered him to be sold.'

- (4) In concessive sentences we may have either an extreme supposition or the statement of a fact; in the latter case we have the indicative, in the former the subjunctive is used. Quamquam, 'although,' utut, 'however much,' are generally and properly followed by the indicative; etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, 'even if,' take the indicative, when the possibility of the extreme supposition is taken for granted; but the subjunctive when the supposition is conceived as impossible; licet, 'it is allowable,' quamvis or quantumvis, 'as much as you please,' and ut, 'however much,' properly and regularly take the subjunctive, although the last is used parenthetically with the indicative in some few instances, chiefly in the poets, who also use quanquam in the sense of quamvis with the subjunctive. Thus we have:
- Romani, quanquam fessi erant, tamen procedunt, 'the Romans, although they were tired, nevertheless advance.'

dis quanquam geniti essent, 'although born of the gods.'
(Virg. Æn. vi. 394.)

tametsi vicisse debeo, tamen de meo jure decedam, 'although I ought to have gained the day, neverthe-

less I will relinquish my rights.'

cur Siculi te defensorem habere nolint, etiamsi taceant, satis dicunt; verum non tacent, 'the Sicilians sufficiently declare, even though they were silent, why they would not like to have you for their advocate; but they are not silent.'

fremant omnes, licet; dicam quod sentio, 'although all exclaim against it (they may all do so, it is allowed), I will nevertheless say what I think.'

quod turpe est, id, quamvis occultetur, tamen honestum fieri nullo modo potest, 'that which is disgraceful, let it be concealed as much as you please, still can never become honourable.' Pollio amat nostram (quamvis est rustica) musam, 'Pollio loves our muse—she is as countryfied as you please.'

ut fueris dignior, non competitor in culpá est, 'you may have been as much more worthy as you please, still your competitor is not in fault.'

## § 11. Construction of the Infinitive, Participles and other Verbals.

## (1) Infinitive.

- (177) The infinitive, which expresses the mere action of the verb, may be considered as a noun, undeclined but used either as the subject of a proposition, or as the object of certain verbs; and when the infinitive has a subject of its own, this is put in the accusative, unless it is attracted into the case governed by the finite verb on which it depends.
- (a) The infinitive is the subject of all verbs of an impersonal nature whether the copula is expressed or included; as:
- victorem parcere victis æquum est, 'that a conqueror should spare the vanquished is a right thing.'
- ad salutem civium inventas esse leges constat, 'that laws were invented for the safety of citizens is an established point.'
- Obs. If the verb is followed by a dative and an adjective, the latter may either agree with the dative or be in the accus. before the infin.; thus we may say either *licet illis esse beatis* or *beatos*. When the gen. follows *est*, the accus. is resumed by the adjective; see Cic. *Brut.* 56.
- (b) The infinitive is the object of all verbs of seeing, hearing, knowing, thinking, saying, &c.; as:

audio te contumeliose de me dicere, 'I hear that you are speaking of me in an insulting manner.'

- ego tibi hoc confirmo, nihilo te nunc majore in discrimine esse, 'I assure you of this, that you are not now in any greater danger.'
- The accusative of personal pronouns may be omitted before the infinitive when the subject is the same, and the poets even imitate the Greek construction and place the predicate after esse in the nom.; as: rettulit Ajax esse Jovis pronepos, 'Ajax declared that he was the great grandson of Jupiter; like the Greek: ξφασκεν Διὸς είναι, though the more common construction is: se pronepotem esse. After verbs of wishing and endeavouring, the pronoun is generally omitted, and the nominative retained when the subject is the same: as: eruditus fieri cupio, 'I desire to be learned.' After volo and nolo in particular the past passive participle is used with or without esse, to denote the complete accomplishment of the wish; as: Corinthum extinctam esse volo, 'I would have Corinth destroyed;' id factum nollem, 'I would rather not have that done.'
- Obs. 2. In most cases the tense of the infinitive is that of the dependent verb in English; as: arbitror to divisse, 'I presume that you said;' promittebat so venturum, 'he promised that he would come;' audio hominem laudatum iri, 'I hear that the man will be praised.' Sometimes the future is expressed by a periphrasis of fore or futurum esse for a continuous state, and futurum fuisse for a contingent futurity; as: spero fore ut contingat id nobis, 'I hope it will so happen that this may fall to our lot;' ignorabat futurum fuisse ut urbs dederetur, 'he knew not that it would have come to pass that the city would be given up.' But after verbs expressing possibility or obligation, the past tense is expressed by the main verb, and the infinitive is always present; thus we say: licuit mihi ire, 'it

was allowed to me to go' = 'I might have gone;' facere potui, 'I had the power to do it' = 'I could have done it;' oportuit te dicere, 'it behoved you to speak' = 'you ought to have spoken.'

(178) Whenever we wish to express the end rather than the object of an action, that is, whenever the preposition 'to' prefixed to an English infinitive means 'to the end that' or 'in order to,' we must use ut with the subjunctive instead of the infinitive in Latin. Thus, as a general rule, we have ut with the subjunctive after verbs of asking, commanding, advising, intending, and effecting; as:

id agit ut se conservet, 'he does his best to (i.e. 'to the end that he may') preserve himself.'

te oro et hortor ut diligens sis, 'I beg and exhort you to (i. e. to the end or intent that you may) be diligent.'

Obs. 1. Some verbs belonging to this class take the infinitive as well as the subjunctive with ut, but with a difference of meaning: thus when moneo or admoneo signifies 'to inform or remind' it takes the infinitive: as: moneo te hoc falsum esse, 'I apprize you that this is false; but we have moneo ut quiescas, 'I exhort you to be quiet.' Persuadeo, 'I convince,' takes the infinitive; as: persuasit mihi hoc verum esse, 'he convinced me that this was true; but when it means 'I induce' it is followed by the final sentence with ut: as: quis tibi persuasit ut hoc faceres? 'who so far persuaded you that you did this? i. e. 'who induced you to do it?' Jubeo, 'I order,' takes the infinitive because it expresses the thing commanded rather than the purpose; it may however have the subjunctive with ut, when it is used absolutely in the sense: 'I give orders,' and this is generally the case with all other verbs of commanding. Fac, 'suppose,' and efficio, 'I prove,' take the infinitive, but facio, 'I effect, accomplish, bring it to pass,' is so regularly used with the final clause that facio ut is often a mere periphrasis for a verb of action; as: faciunt inviti ut dent = dant inviti, 'they give unwillingly;' libenter ac sæpe fecerunt ut laudarent, 'they often and willingly praised.' The same is the case with many verbs expressing a result, a consequence, a contingency, as: fit ut, fieri potest ut, accidit ut, accedit ut, sequitur ut, &c.

- Obs. 2. Some verbs of willingness or permission, which usually take the infinitive, and some verbs of asking and advising, take the subjunctive without ut; this is particularly the case with: fac, velim, nolim, malim, licet, necesse est, and oportet; as: tu velim animo sapienti sis, 'I wish you to be wise.'
- (179) Whenever we wish to express the cause rather than the object of an emotion, we use quod with the finite verb instead of the infinitive. This is particularly the case with verbs of grief, joy, surprise and admiration, and the sense is sometimes strengthened by a demonstrative antecedent; as:

doleo quod stomacharis, 'I am sorry that' (or 'be-

cause') 'you are angry.'

- illud est admiratione dignum, quod captivos retinendos censuit, 'that is particularly worthy of admiration, namely, that he advised the retention of the prisoners.'
- (180) There are three cases in which the infinitive may be used without the support of any finite verb:
- (a) In the oblique narration, where it may even appear in relative sentences; as: se quoque, quum transiret mare, non Ciliciam aut Lydiam, quippe tanti belli exiguam hanc esse mercedem, sed Persepolim, &c., imperio suo destinasse, where scripsit or dixit is to be supplied.

- (b) As an equivalent to the present or imperfect indicative, which is probably a result of the oblique narration, the main verb being tacitly supposed; thus: ingenium ejus haud absurdum; posse versus facere, &c., 'it is reported that his abilities were the reverse of contemptible; that he could make verses, &c.;' postquam in ædes irruperunt, diversi regem quærere, 'after they broke into the palace, [we are told] they went in different directions to seek the king.'
- Obs. The ellipsis of copit, coperunt, which is given in most Grammars, is not always applicable, and seems not to be founded in truth.
- (c) In exclamations the accusative is used with the infinitive, as a merely objective sentence, just as the accusative alone is used with interjections (168); thus: adeone hominem esse infelicem quenquam, 'could any man at all be so unlucky!'

# (2) Participles.

(181) As the passive voice has no present participle, and as only deponent verbs have a past participle with an active signification, it is obvious that the application of the Latin participle to the expression of subordinate ideas must be very limited. And the want of a definite article leaves us no outward means of distinguishing between the participle as an epithet or description, and the same word as a causal, concessive, or hypothetical term. Hence, while on the one hand it is generally more convenient to substitute a complete sentence with some conjunction for the participle, as used in Greek, on the other hand, the Latin participle easily passes into a mere adjective, and, from that, becomes fixed in use as a substantive. Thus the active participles adolescens, parens, and sapiens are constantly used as substantives; secundus, 'following,' is

always an adjective, 'second,' i. e. 'following in time or order,' and is generally used in a metaphorical or applied sense, as secundus ventus, 'a fair wind,' i. e. 'one which follows the ship,' secundæ res, 'fair, favouring, prosperous circumstances.' The passive participles acutus, argutus, &c., are almost always employed as epithets, and the neuters commentum, consultum, dictum, furtum, placitum, præceptum, scriptum, &c., are to all intents and purposes substantives. And some of the participles in -ns have their degrees of comparison like the ordinary adjectives.

- (182) The participle is used in its proper or verbal sense,
- (a) In temporal sentences; as: domum reversus, litteras inveni tuas, 'when I got home, I found your letter.'
- (b) In final sentences; as: pergit ad Hammonem consulturus oraculum, 'he goes to Jupiter Hammon, for the purpose of consulting the oracle.'
- (c) In causal sentences; as: aer effluens huc et illuc ventos efficit, 'the air, by rushing to and fro (i. e. because it does so) produces winds.'
- (d) In concessive sentences, sometimes with quanvis, &c., added; as: Cæsarem milites, quamvis recusantem, ultro in Africam sunt secuti, 'the soldiers went so far as to accompany Cæsar to Africa, although he refused to have them.'
- (e) In the ablative absolute, as hypothetical, temporal, causal, or concessive; as: Tarquinio regnante, 'when Tarquin was king;' propositā sibi morte, 'although death was set before him.'
- Obs. 1. In some passive participles the ablative absolute is used impersonally to denote the previous state of things which caused or suggested the main

action; as: Alexander, audito Darium appropinquare, &c., 'Alexander, it being heard (i. e. intelligence having been brought) that Darius was drawing near, &c.'

The participles generally used in this way are: audito, cognito, comperto, desperato, nunciato, edicto.

OBS. 2. Some passive participles are used in the neuter accus. after habeo, to form a periphrastic perfect, as in many of the modern languages; such are: cognitum, comprehensum, constitutum, deliberatum, exploratum, perspectum, persuasum, &c.; as: hoc cognitum habeo = hoc cognovi. All these, except persuasum, may agree with the object of the verb; as: omnes habeo cognitos sensus adolescentis, 'I have learnt all the feelings of the young man.'

### (3) Gerunds and Gerundives.

(183) The participle in -ndus is really only another form of that in -ns; it is therefore present in tense and active in signification; as:

volvenda dies, en, attulit ultro, 'time rolling on has brought it to you unexpectedly,' (Virg. Æn. 1x. 7).

quæ ante conditam condendamoe urbem traduntur, 'traditions derived from a period when the city was neither built nor building.'

(184) The participle in -ndus is generally found as a substitute for some use of the infinitive active; and it is called the gerundium or gerund, when it governs the case of the verb, and the gerundium or gerundive, when it agrees with the object; thus in: consilium capiendi urbem we have a gerund, but in: consilium urbis capiendæ, a gerundive, and both phrases mean: 'the design of taking the city.' This gerundive is merely an attraction; for dandus = dans, means

'giving;' ad dandum opes means 'for giving riches,' and this is attracted into the case of the object; as: ad opes dandas, 'for riches-giving,' with precisely the same signification.

(185) This attraction always takes place in the nominative after the impersonal est, in the sense of 'it is the duty, part, obligation, or destiny,' so that the verb becomes personal; in such a phrase as sapientis est seipsum nosse, 'it is the part of a wise man to know himself,' we should not think of inserting the gerund or gerundive; and we might say also: est Romanorum delere Carthaginem, 'it is the part of the Romans to destroy Carthage;' but if, instead of the genitive with the infinitive, we had the dative of the person, the only allowable construction would be that of the attracted gerund or gerundive: delenda vobis est Carthago, 'Carthage is for you to destroy,'='you ought to destroy it.' This would commonly be rendered 'Carthage is to be destroyed,' and, from our idiom, it has been supposed that the participle in -ndus is future and passive. But it is often a matter of indifference in English, whether we use the active or passive infinitive; thus: 'he is a man to love,'='he is a man to be loved;' 'I give you this to eat,'='I give you this to be eaten,' &c.; and this is the reason why a similar interchange has been erroneously presumed in Latin. No one can doubt that the gerund is active; but if vivendum est = vivere est = oportet vivere, there can be no reason why the gerundive should not be active also; for they are used sometimes in the very same sentence; as: nunc est bibendum, nunc pede libero pulsanda tellus, 'now we must drink, now we must beat the ground with free foot; and the gerundive and active infinitive are used indifferently, though the former is preferred, after verbs which express that a thing is given out, commissioned, or undertaken to be done; such as do, trado, permitto, accipio; thus we may have: Antigonus Eumenem mortuum propinquis sepeliendum tradidit, 'Antigonus gave up the dead body of Eumenes to his friends for burial' (i. e. 'to bury'), (Corn. Nep. Eumen. 13); or: tristitiam et metus tradam protervis in mare Creticum portare ventis, 'I will give up sorrow and fear to the wanton winds for transportation (i. e. 'to carry') to the Cretan sea.'

(186) The gerund in -dum, as it is called, is always dependent on prepositions, and mostly on ad or inter; as:

locus ad agendum amplissimus, 'a place most honourable to plead in.'

If the verb of the gerund requires an accusative, the gerundive is commonly preferred; as: ad tolerandos labores, 'for enduring labours,' because tolero is transitive.

(187) The gerund in -di is always used as a genitive after substantives implying desire, design, hope, power, cause, &c.; and after relative adjectives which require a genitive to complete their meaning; as:

innatus amor habendi, 'a natural desire of possessing stores.'

studiosus erat audiendi, 'he was very fond of hearing.' If the verb of the gerund requires an accusative, the gerundive is preferred; as: consuetudo hominum immolandorum, 'the custom of sacrificing human beings,' because immŏlo is transitive. The gerundive repetundus is used only in the gen. and abl. pl. to agree with pecuniarum and pecuniis, expressed or understood (generally the former in Cicero), and in the sense of: 'extortion, illegal exaction;' as: legem de pecuniis repetundis tulit, 'he brought in a law about extortion.'

- (188) The gerund in -do is either dative or ablative. (a) When dative, it usually follows adjectives, substantives, and verbs, to signify limitation or design; after substantives and verbs, the gerund in -dum with ad may be substituted for the dative; thus we have utilis ad bibendum, 'useful for drinking,' consul placandis dis dat operam, 'the consul pays attention to the appearing of the gods.'
- (b) When ablative, the gerund in do either denotes the instrument, in which case, of course, no preposition is necessary; as:

alitur vitium vivitque tegendo, 'the disease is nourished and lives by concealment;'

or it is an ablative depending on ab, de, ex, or in; as: summa voluptas ex discendo capitur, 'the greatest pleasure is derived from learning.'

If the verb of the gerund requires an accusative case, the *gerundive* is preferred to the *gerund* in -do, whether it be dative or ablative; as:

triumviri reipublicæ constituendæ, 'a board of three commissioners for settling the constitution.'

fortitudo in laboribus periculisque subeundis cernitur, 'courage is manifested in undergoing toils and dangers.'

# (4) Supines.

(189) The supine in -tum is generally used after verbs of motion. It may be changed, without any difference of meaning, into the gerund in -dum with ad, or into the final subjunctive with ut; thus:

spectatum veniunt, veniunt spectentur ut ipsæ, 'they come to see' (we might say also ad spectandum, or ut spectent); 'they come that they may be seen themselves.'

- Obs. 1. We have seen (70, 83,) that the supine in -tum is regularly used with the passive *iri* to form the future passive of verbs, and that some compounds, as venumdo, also contain it; there are other paraphrases, such as perditum eo, ultum eo, which add little to the meaning of the verbs perdo, ulciscor.
- Obs. 2. The poets sometimes use the common infinitive instead of the supine in -tum; as: pecus egit visere montes. (Hor. 1. Carm. 11. 7).
- (190) The supine in -tu is used after fas, nefas, opus, and certain adjectives denoting quality; as: quod factu fædum est, idem est et dictu turpe, 'that which it is abominable to do, it is also disgraceful to speak.'

Obs. This supine, like that in -tum, may be changed into the gerund in -dum with ad; compare: quid est tam jucundum auditu (Cic. de Orat. 1. 8) with verba ad audiendum jucunda (id. ibid. 1. 49). A dative in -tui is occasionally found with much the same meaning (above, 53, a).

### SUPPLEMENTARY CHAPTER.

### § 12. Accessary Sentences.

- (191) After what has been said, it is only necessary to enumerate, with references to the special rules, the different classes of accessary propositions or sentences.
- (1) Conditional sentences consist of a protasis, or sentence containing some word signifying 'if,' 'provided that' (si, dummodo &c.), which may be omitted and

understood, and an apodosis, which contains the result of the condition; the four different classes of conditional propositions are given in 128, xvi.; and the explanation of the different moods and tenses is to be found in § 9. To this class belong the optative and deprecatory clauses discussed in the same section.

- (192) (2) Definitive sentences are expressed by a relative with a verb which is in the indicative except in oblique narration; see 128, x. b.
- (193) (3) Subjunctive sentences are connected with the main clause by some relative or interrogative word, and the verb is always in the subjunctive mood; 128, X. a.
- (194) (4) Temporal sentences are supplementary to the tenses of the main verb, and are differently expressed according to the differences of the time denoted.
- (a) Contemporary acts: quum, ut, uti, simulac, with the indicative (176, 2, a.): the participle in agreement with the subject, or in the ablative absolute (182).
- (b) Repeated acts: the indicative with *quoties*, either of past or present time; but the pluperfect subjunctive after relatives in narrating repeated acts (175, 5).
- (c) Subsequent acts: the indicative with postquam, unless it be intended to imply a necessary connexion with the preceding circumstance, when we have quum or ubi with the subjunctive (176, 2, a.).
- (d) Continued acts: the indicative, if mere time is signified, but the subjunctive, if a condition or necessary connexion is implied, after donec, quoad, dum (176, 2, c.).

- (e) Previous acts: antequam or priusquam with the indicative when time only is indicated, but the subjunctive if a conditional turn is given to the sentence (176, 2, b.).
- (195) (5) Objective sentences are supplementary to the cases of the noun, and are expressed either by the oblique case of the object accompanied by the infinitive mood (177), or by the conjunctions quod, quia, &c. followed by the indicative. The oblique narration belongs to this class, and in this every relative is followed by the subjunctive (175, b. 4).
- (196) (6) Illative, intensive, or consecutive sentences contain the consequence or result of a former predication, and are expressed by ut or qui with the subjunctive (175, b. 3).
- (197) (7) Final sentences declare the end of what is predicated, and are expressed by ut or quo positively and by ne, ut ne, quominus and quin negatively, followed in every case by the subjunctive (175, b. 2). Sometimes this sentence is contained in a future participle (182, b.), or conveyed by the gerund with ad (186) or the supine in -tum (189).
- (198) (8) Comparative sentences are expressed by quasi, tanquam, &c. with the subjunctive (175, b. 6).
- (199) (9) Causal sentences explain the cause of what is asserted, and are expressed by the participle (182, c.), by the conjunctions nam, enim, &c. (112, d.), in distinct and independent clauses by quia, quod, quoniam, quandoquidem, siquidem, followed by the indicative (176, 3, b.), quum generally with the subjunctive (176, 3, a.), qui, ut qui, quippe qui most frequently with the subjunctive (176, 3, c.).

(200) (10) Concessive sentences strengthen or limit by an admission, and are expressed by the participle with or without quamvis and quamquam (182, d.), by quanquam and utut generally with the indicative (176, 4), by etsi, tametsi, etiamsi, with either the indicative or subjunctive (176, 4), by quamvis, quantumvis, licet, ut, quum, with the subjunctive only (176, 4).

### PART III.

# Prosody, or Quantity and Metre.

### § 1. Quantity.

- (201) PROSODY teaches the quantity of syllables and the laws of metre.
- (202) A syllable is a vowel or diphthong with or without a consonant prefixed.
- (203) In regard to words of more than one syllable, the rule for the division of syllables is as follows:
- (a) A solitary consonant, whether single or double, between two vowels, properly belongs to the second of them, though in pronunciation the double consonant x is always thrown back on the preceding vowel; thus we divide: bi-ju-gus, ma-jor, ex-i-mi-us, ha-be-bat.
- (b) Two or more consonants are divided between the syllables which precede and follow, except in the case of a tenuis followed by l or r, or a medial followed by r, when, as the articulation is not divided, the compound sound passes on to the following vowel; thus we divide: ex-em-plum, vo-lu-cris, tel-lus, a-trox, du-plex, a-ni-mad-ver-to.
- Obs. These rules do not apply to compounds, which are divided by their separate parts; as: prodest, ob-ruit.
- (204) The quantity of syllables is determined either by the nature of the vowel or by that of the consonants

which follow. It is long or short in the one case by nature; in the other by position. As a naturally long vowel involves either the contraction of two vowels or the absorption of a consonant, the length of a syllable may be said to depend in all cases upon its composition.

To tell in every case whether a syllable is long or short is a matter of experience, assisted by a knowledge of etymology; but the learner in passing through his accidence has acquainted himself with most of the special facts of Latin quantity. Thus the student has found that a or e is always long before the genitive-ending -rum, and before the terminations -bo, -bis, -bit, -bam, -bas, -bat, in the verbs; that an accusative plural -as, -os, -es, -us, is always long when the singular ends in m or n, that e is always long before -runt or -re in the perfect, that a neuter plural -a is always short, that the adverbial -e is always long except in bene and male, and so forth. Other details are given in Appendix I. The following are the only rules which can be regarded as really general:

(a) All diphthongs and contracted syllables are long; as:

musæ, cōgo from cŏăgo, ōtium from ŏpĭtium. Except præīre, præĕuns, &c.

(b) A vowel before another vowel or h is short;as:

exim-ĭ-us, prŏ-h-ibere.

The former vowel is long in genitives in  $-\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ ,  $-\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$ , (and of these *fiděi*, *rěi* make the *e* common), in certain Greek words, as  $\mathcal{E}n\bar{e}as$ , in vocatives, such as  $C\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ , and in  $f\bar{\imath}o$  for fuio, unless er follows; as:

omnia nunc fiunt, fieri quæ posse negabam.

The former vowel is common in the genitives in

-ius ( $\bar{e}jus$ ,  $h\bar{u}jus$ , harden the i into a consonant), and in the proper name  $D\bar{i}ana$ .

(c) A vowel is long before two or more consonants when the syllable is divided between them; also before x and z; but it may be common before a tenuis and l or r, and before a medial and r, because these letters are carried on to the next syllable (203, b.). The vowel is short before derivatives of jugum, as bijūgus, quadrijūgus, from which we have the contractions būga, quadrīga, but is otherwise long before j. Hence we have:

 $\bar{e}x-\bar{e}m-plum$ ,  $v\ddot{o}-l\ddot{u}-cris$ ,  $l\bar{u}-g\ddot{u}-br\ddot{i}s$ ,  $d\ddot{u}-pl\bar{e}x$ ,  $m\bar{a}$ -jor, but  $s\bar{u}b-ruo$  according to 203, Obs.

- Obs. 1. A short vowel at the end of a word may occasionally be made long, and very rarely remains short, before sc, sp, sq, st, x, z, at the beginning of the word following.
- Obs. 2. The comic poets neglect the rule of position.
- (205) The measurement of syllables is affected also by the following figures:
- I. Synalwpha, or the elision of a final vowel or diphthong before a vowel or h at the beginning of the following word; as:

sērā nimīs vīt' ēst crāstinā, vīv' hödie, for vītā, vīvē.

This rule does not apply to the interjections how and o, and is sometimes neglected by the poets; as:

Tēr sūnt conātī imponere Pēlio Ossam.

II. Ecthlipsis, or the elision of a final m with its vowel before a yowel or h; as:

monstr' horrend' inform' ingens, cui lumen ademptum, for monstrum horrendum, informe.

The older poets used sometimes to omit a final s before a consonant, so that -us became  $\ddot{u}$ ; as:  $v\ddot{v}l\ddot{r}t\ddot{v}$   $v\ddot{v}v\ddot{u}$   $p\ddot{e}r$   $\ddot{o}r\ddot{u}$   $v\ddot{v}rum$  for vivus: see the examples in 220.

III. Synæresis, or the contraction of two syllables into one; as:

sēu lēntō fūžrīnt ālvēarīă vīmīnz tēxta, as if it were written alvyaria,

sēctāqu' întēxīnt ābiĕte cōstas, as if it were written abyete.

IV. Diæresis, or the resolution of one syllable into two; as:

Dēbūšrānt fūsos ēvolūisse sūos, for evolvisse.

V. Casura when, in consequence of the last syllable belonging to a fresh foot or metre, a single consonant is allowed to make it long by position; as:

Pēctori|bus inhiāns spīrāntia consulit ēxtă.

VI. The last syllable of every verse is common.

### § 2. Metrical Feet.

(206) Rhythm (numerus) is the harmonious proportion, which results from the methodical arrangement of words according to their long and short syllables; and by a recurrence of an emphasis or stress at intervals. If the rhythm is not regulated by fixed laws it is called prosaic (solute orationis numerus). If the emphasis recurs according to a definite measure, the

- rhythm becomes metre (metrum). Every recurrence of the emphasis is termed a metre, and those collections of metres, which recur as distinct wholes, are called verses or lines (versus).
- (207) The emphasis, on which the metre depends, is called the ictus, because the time was marked by a stamp of the foot; hence the old Latin metre, or Saturnian verse, was termed tripudiatio—triplex pedis pulsatio; and Horace says (111. Carm. 18, 15): gaudet invisam pepulisse fossor ter pede terram, 'the labourer delights to have beaten the hated earth with the three blows of his foot,' i. e. to dance in the old fashion. When the emphatic and unemphatic parts of the metre are contradistinguished they are called the arsis (ἄροις) and thesis (θέοις) respectively, i. e. the raising and sinking of the voice.
- (208) Every short syllable, which is the unit of metre or measurement, is considered as one *mora* or 'time;' and every long syllable consists of two such *moræ*. According to this principle, long syllables are resolved, short syllables combined, and rhythms calculated.
- (209) When a rhythm is considered as the element of a verse, it is called a 'foot' (pes), and the division of verses into feet is called scanning or scansion (scansio, i.e. ascending or climbing up by steps, whence a scale in music, from scāla, 'a ladder').
- (210) There are only two kinds of proper feet or distinct and primitive rhythms.
- (a) The equal rhythms, consisting of four more, in which one long syllable is opposed to two short, so that the ratio is  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; these are:

Dactylus, 'the dactyl,'  $- \cup \cup$ ; as:  $m\bar{u}n\check{e}r\check{a}$ ; Anapæstus, 'the anapæst,'  $- \cup -$ ; as:  $l\check{a}p\check{u}d\bar{e}s$ .

(b) The double rhythms, consisting of three more, in which a long and a short syllable are opposed, so that the ratio is ?; these are:

Trochæus, 'the trochee,'  $- \cup$ ; as:  $m\bar{u}s\bar{a}$ ; Iambus, 'the iambus,'  $\cup -$ ; as:  $\bar{u}m\bar{a}s$ .

To these may be added the representative feet; i.e. the *spondœus* or 'spondee,' which represents (208) the equal rhythm by two long syllables; as:  $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath}nt$ , and the *tribrachys* or 'tribrach,' which represents the double rhythm by three short syllables; as:  $br\check{e}v\check{\imath}b\check{\imath}s$ .

- (211) If in any verse the regular course of the rhythm is preceded by an unemphatic syllable, whether long or short, this is called an anacrusis, or 'back stroke,' and if the anacrusis extends to three or four moræ, it is called a basis or 'pedestal.' It is customary to mark the onward course of the ictus by the acute accent, the anacrusis by the grave, and the basis by the two accents crossing one another. The divisions of the feet are marked by vertical lines, and the change of rhythm in the middle of the verse by two vertical lines.
- (212) All verses, except the dactylic and the old Saturnian trochaics, reckon the metre by a double foot or *dipodia*, as it is called, and have only one ictus to the pair of feet.
- (213) Half a foot is technically called a hemimer (ήμμερές), and cæsuras, which take place in the middle of the third and fourth feet respectively, are called penthemimeral and hephthemimeral cæsuras.
- \*(214) If a metre terminates in a hemimer, it is called catalectic or 'interrupted;' if it is completed, it is called acatalectic or 'uninterrupted.'

If the supposed or prescribed metre is redundant

by a hemimer, the term hypercatalectic is applied. Two catalectic forms are so common that they are often called feet; these are the choriambus or dactylic triemimer; as:  $\bar{e}xt\bar{u}t\bar{e}|r\bar{a}s||$ , which may be termed the dactylic dimeter catalectic; and the creticus or trochaic triemimer; as:  $\bar{e}ff|\tilde{e}|r\bar{u}nt||$ , which may be termed the trochaic monometer catalectic.

# § 3. Equal Rhythms.

### A. Dactylic Verse.

(215) (a) Hexameter or Heroic Verse. The only dactylic rhythm, which appears in long systems of single lines, is called the Hexameter, because it contains six metres or repetitions of the ictus. The first four metres may be either dactyls or spondees, but the fifth must generally be a dactyl, and the sixth must always be a spondee, or, according to 205, vi., a trochee. The following are examples:

pāsto res voi um tene ros de pellite fotus .

tū nihil invi tā di cās faci asve Mi nervā .

- Oss. 1. In these verses there is generally, as in the examples, a penthemimeral cæsura, and often a hephthemimeral cæsura also. In consecutive lines, the pauses and cæsuras must be varied; and if the pause falls after the first word it should be a dactyl or trochee.
- Obs. 2. If the fifth foot is a spondee, which is rarely the case, the fourth must be a dactyl; as:

cônstitit| átque ŏcŭ|lis Phrygi|a ágmină| cîrcūms|pēxīt||.
cláră dĕ|ûm sŏbă|lēs māg|nūm Jŏvis| încrē|mēntūm||.

- Obs. 3. Words of more than three syllables and monosyllables are rarely found at the end of hexameter lines.
- (216) (b) Elegiac Verse. Not only does custom require that the dactyl should be represented by a spondee at the end of an hexameter verse, but the ictus alone may suffice for the close of a set of dactyls.

This is regularly the case with the dactylic trimeter catalectic or *penthemimer*; and a class of poems, called *Elegiac*, is written in complete hexameter lines followed alternately by pairs of these interrupted trimeters, which are erroneously called *Pentameters*. Example:

grātulor | Œchăli am titu līs āc cēdere | vēstrīs | vīcto rēm vīc tæ || sūccubu līsse que ror ||.

- Obs. 1. The penthemimers of the elegiac must be kept distinct.
- Obs. 2. The last word of the line should be an iambus, and either a verb, substantive, or pronoun; it should not be preceded by an elision; and the word preceding it should not be a disyllable. There are exceptions to these rules, but they are not to be imitated. For example, a word of four or more syllables is more frequently found at the end than a trisyllable.
- Obs. 3. The first penthemimer seldom ends with an iambus, unless the first foot is a spondee, and this is to be avoided, especially when the spondee is included in a word. The two spondees in the example above are not to be imitated; they are required in the special case by the antithesis.
- (217) (c) Glyconic Verse. The dactyl and spondee, which terminate the hexameter verse, appear as a separate dipodia, which is called the Adonius, and

always, as we shall see, terminates the Sapphic stanza; as:

If the second dactyl is retained, and a basis prefixed, the line is called a Glyconeus; as:

If the Adonius has a basis prefixed it is called a Pherecrateus; as:

(218) (d) Choriambic Verse. The dactyl and long syllable, which form the end of the pentameter, appear as a catalectic dipodia by the side of complete pairs of feet. Thus, in the lesser Asclepiadean verse, we have two dipodiæ with the basis prefixed, the former dipodia appearing as a triemimer or choriambus; and in the great Asclepiadean verse the complete dipodia is preceded by two choriambi, or catalectic dimeters. Examples:

Mœcē|nās ătă|vīs || ēdītē | rēgībūs||.

 $t\hat{u}$   $n\bar{e} |qu\bar{e}s\check{\imath}\check{e}|r\hat{\imath}s||sc\hat{\imath}r\check{e}$   $n\check{e}|f\bar{a}s||qu\bar{e}m$   $m\check{\imath}h\check{\imath}|qu\bar{e}m$   $t\check{\imath}b\check{\imath}||.$ 

The shorter Asclepiadean is used by itself, or alternately with glyconei (Hor. 1. 3.), or in couplets followed by a *Pherecrateus* and *Glyconeus* (Hor. 1. 5).

(219) There are other kinds of dactylic verse, which are less common; thus, we have the *Tetrameter*; as:

 $a\bar{u}t$   $Ephĕ|s\bar{o}n$   $bĭm\check{a}|r\bar{i}sv\breve{e}$   $C\breve{o}|r\bar{i}nth\bar{i}||.$   $m\bar{e}ns\bar{o}|r\bar{e}m$   $c\breve{o}h\check{i}|b\bar{e}nt$   $Ar|ch\bar{y}t\bar{u}||.$ 

And the penthemimer occurs as a separate verse; as:

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### B. Anapæstic Verse.

(220) (a) Anapæstic Dimeter. The commonest anapæstic system is the dimeter, which consists of successive pairs of feet, the whole system being counted as one line until it is broken by a basis, or by a catalectic dimeter, which is termed a paræmiac. The dactyl and spondee may take the place of the anapæst, except in the last foot of the dimeter, where the dactyl is not used by Seneca. Example:

unde ig|ni' cluēt ||morta|ibu' clam||divi|sus: eum ||dictu' Pro|mētheus<math>||clēpsi||sse dolo||, panas|que Jovi||fāto  $ext{ex}||pendi||sse supre|mo||.$ 

(221) (b) Ionic a minore. If the thesis in the anapæstic dipodia is represented by a single long syllable, it is usual to term this metre Ionicus a minore, in contradistinction to a certain form of the choriambic rhythm cum anacrusi, which was called the Ionicus a majore. Four of these imperfect anapæstic dipodiæ form a verse in Horace; thus:

mĭsĕrā|rum ēst||nĕc ăm $\delta$ |rī||dărĕ  $l\bar{u}$ |dūm||nĕquĕ  $d\bar{u}$ |lcī||.

# § 4. Double Rhythms.

### A. Trochaic Verse.

(222) (a) Ithyphallic Metre. The trochee is a dactyl with the last mora omitted. The simplest and

oldest form of the trochaic metre is the *ithyphallicus*, or *tripudiatio*, in which the ictus occurred thrice. This metre always appears in two sets of three feet with an anacrusis. It was very rude, and the substitutions for the trochee were extremely arbitrary, as the following examples will show:

 $d\ddot{a}|b\bar{u}nt \ m\ddot{a}|l\bar{u}m \ M\ddot{e}|t\bar{e}ll\bar{l}|| \ N\ddot{e}vi\ddot{o} \ p\ddot{o}|\bar{e}t\overline{e}||.$   $f\ddot{u}n|d\tilde{u}t \ f\ddot{u}|g\tilde{a}t \ pr\ddot{o}|st\bar{e}rn\bar{\iota}t \ || \ m\tilde{a}xi|m\tilde{a}s \ l\ddot{e}gi|\ddot{o}n\bar{e}s||.$   $n\dot{o}|v\dot{e}m \ J\ddot{o}|vis \ c\ddot{o}n|c\ddot{o}rd\bar{e}s \ || \ f\ddot{\iota}l\dot{i}|\dot{e} \ s\ddot{o}|r\ddot{o}r\bar{e}s||.$ 

(223) (b) Hipponactean Verse. The trochaic metre is generally counted by pairs of feet, each having but one ictus, i.e. on the first syllable. If a long syllable is added to a trochee, the triemimer which results is called dimeter catalectic, and is also designated as a creticus; as:  $cr\bar{e}d\tilde{\imath}|d\tilde{\imath}|$ . When the last syllable is resolved it is termed poon primus, as: divitibus; if the first syllable is resolved, it is called poon quartus, as măriti mos . The pæon secundus, as ămābimus, and the pæon tertius, as stimulātus, correspond in the number of more, but not in rhythm, to the true cretic measure. The Greeks considered the cretic and pæonic metres as constituting a special class of rhythms, which they designated as hemiolian, i.e. one and a half, because the ratio of the arsis to the thesis was 3: and the cretic, and by implication the trochaic dipodia, was reckoned as equivalent rhythmically to the dactyl, be-trochaic dipodia, which plays an important part in metrical systems, is generally regarded as = trochee + spondee by the Augustan poets. If the ithyphallic is increased by a long syllable, the verse is called dimeter catalectic : as :

 $Tr\bar{u}di|t\bar{u}r$   $di|\bar{e}s$   $di|\bar{e}||$ .

And if an ithyphallic, added to a trochaic dipodia cum anacrusi, follows this dimeter, the metre is termed Hipponactean; as:

non ĕ|būr nĕ|que aūrĕ|ūm|| mě|ā rĕ|nīdĕt || īn dŏ|mō lă|cūnār||.

(224) (d) Tetrameter Catalectic. If the dimeter catalectic is added to a complete dimeter, the verse becomes tetrameter catalectic,—a form which was much used by the dramatists. A tribrach may stand every where for the trochee, and in the even places a spondee; the older poets, who follow the colloquial pronunciation, put a spondee, a dactyl, or an anapæst in any place; as:

 $\stackrel{\leftarrow}{e}$ mŏ $|ri~nar{o}||lar{o}$  sĕd | ēssĕ  $|||~mar{o}rtar{u}|ar{u}m~nar{i}l~||~\stackrel{\leftarrow}{e}$ st $i|mar{o}|||.$ 

ěgŏ quūm | gĕnŭī || tūm mŏrĭ|tūrūm ||| scīvĭ et | eī reī || sūstŭ|tī|||.

nām săpi|ēns vīr||tūte hŏ|nōrēm ||| præmi|um haūd
præ||dām pĕtit|||.

ēcquīd | vidĕŏ ? || fērrō | sēptūs ||| pōssi|dēt sē|dēs săcrās|||.

### B. Iambic Verse.

- (225) The iambus always appears in dipodiæ, the second member of which received the ictus. The tribrach may be substituted for the iambus in any place of the longer verses, a spondee in the odd places.
- (226) (a) Dimeter Acatalectic. This verse consists of four feet; the first and third may be spondees; the first a dactyl, and the second a tribrach; as in the following examples:

inār sit œs ||tūō|siūs||.

věl hæ|dŭs ē||rēptūs | lŭpō||.

imbrēs | nivēs ||que cōm|părāt||.

fōrtī | sequā||mūr pēc|tŏrē||.

vidē|re prope||rāntēs | domūm||.

āst ego | vicīs||sīm rī|serō||.

(227) (b) Trimeter Acatalectic. This verse, which is also called the senarius, may consist of six iambi, which is the case in Horace's XVIth Epode, and admits tribrachs any where but in the last foot, spondees in the even places, a dactyl in the first and third, and an anapæst in the first foot; as:

sŭīs | ēt îp||să Rō|mă vî||rībūs | rūīt||.

ālītī|bŭs āt||qŭe cănĭ|bŭs hŏmĭ|cīdam Hēc|tŏrēm||.

Cānĭdĭ|ă brevĭ||bŭs īm|plīcā||tă vī|perīs||.

pŏsĭtōs|que ver||nās dī|tīs ēx||āmēn | dŏmūs||.

ōptāt | quīe|tēm Pelŏ|pĭs īn|fīdī | pătēr||.

If the last word in the line is a trisyllable, the fifth foot ought to be an iambus or a tribrachys. The second of the above examples is one of some twenty exceptions to the rule. There ought to be a penthemimeral or hephthemimeral cæsura; if possible, the former, as in the above examples.

Obs. If trimeters follow a dactylic hexameter, or dimeters follow trimeters, the poem is called an  $Ep\bar{o}dos$ . Horace has a book of such poems.

(228) (c) The Scazon. If the last foot of the

senarius is a spondee, the line is called a scazon, or halting line.' The second, fourth, and fifth feet must then be iambi; as:

nēc fon te la bra pro lui || cabal lino||.

(229) (d) Tetrameter Catalectic. If we add a catalectic metre to the senarius, we have a tetrameter catalectic: as:

sěd în | dřem îs|tūc Pār|měno ēst | förtās|sě quöd || mřnār|e||.

ět în sölēn ter æs tuās | vělūt | minū | tă māg no |.

### § 5. Asynartete Rhythms.

- (230) If rhythms of different kinds are put together the verse is called asynartete (ἀσυνάρτητος), or 'unconnected.' The most common of these combinations are dactyls mixed with trochaic dipodiæ; and if the trochees follow the dactyls the verse is termed logaædic.
- (231) Sapphic Verse. The ordinary Sapphic stanza consists of three asynartete lines followed by an adonius (217). The first three lines are made up of a dactyl flanked by two trochaic dipodiæ, in each of which the second foot is a spondee; the metre therefore stands thus:

(232) There is a longer form of the Sapphic line, in which the first trochaic dipodia is followed by a choriambus, or incomplete dactylic dimeter, which precedes the usual dactyl, and there is also a shorter form in which the first trochaic dipodia is omitted. The two appear together in an ode of Horace; thus:

Lýdžá || dic per | ōmnēs||,

tē de os o ro Sybarín || cūr proper as a māndo |||.

(233) If the dactyl in the former of these lines is preceded by a basis and followed by an ithyphallicus instead of a dipodia, the verse is called the *Phalæcian hendecasyllable*; as:

 $p\bar{a}ss\bar{e}r \parallel d\hat{e}lici\parallel \hat{\overline{c}} m\check{e}\mid \hat{\overline{c}} p\check{u}\mid \hat{e}ll\bar{a}\parallel.$ 

(234) Alcaic Verse. If we call the trochaic dipodia A, the dactylic B, and the anacrusis x, the Alcaic stanza of four lines will consist of two lines containing x + A + B, followed by x + 2A and B + A; thus:

x A. B. vì|dēs ŭt | āltā || stēt nīvē | cāndīdum||.

x A. B. So|rācte | nēc jām || sūstīne|ānt ŏnus||.

> x 2 A. sīl|væ lă|bōrān|tēs gĕ|lūquĕ||

> > B. A. flūmină | constite||rint a|cuto.

Obs. 1. There can be no casura between A and B in the first two lines, unless there is an elision; as:

quis | devi | um scor | tum elici | et domo | .

Obs. 2. The anacrusis is rarely a monosyllable or a short syllable, but this occurs sometimes, as in the instance above for the short syllable; and for the monosyllable:

nīl | Claūdi | w non | pērfici | ent mănŭs | . Still more rare is a monosyllable at the end; as:

ne | fórte | credas || înteri|tură que ||.

- Obs. 3. The anacrusis of the third line is most frequently a long syllable; but Horace has ten instances to the contrary.
- Obs. 4. The third line must not end with a monosyllable, except it be et or in with an elision.
- Obs. 5. As a general rule the trochaic dimeter contained in the third line ought to have a penthemimeral cæsura. Hence it is objectionable to have a quadrisyllable or two disyllables either at the beginning or end of the line, though a few exceptions may be found in Horace; and the best rhythm is three words of three syllables each, or equivalent substitutions; as:

dē|scēndē | Corvi|no jū|bēntē||.

nar|rātūr | ēt prīs|cī Că|tonis||.

dē|mīssă |tēmpēs|tās ăb | Eūro||.

O | māgnă | Carthā|go pro|brosīs|.

OBS. 6. A short syllable at the end of the first

three lines, with a vowel at the beginning of the following line, must be avoided, and there are two instances in Horace of an ecthlipsis at the end of the third line:

> sõrs | ēwi|tūra ēt | nõs in ætērn'-um ewsilium—

cum | pace | dela|bentis Etrusc'-um in mare.

- Obs. 7. The fourth line should have a cæsura either in or between the dipodiæ.
- (235) Archilochian Verse. This is a dactylic tetrameter followed by an ithyphallicus; as:

sốlvitur | ácrīs hijems grā tá vice || veris | ét Fă vonī ||.

(236) *Elegiambus*. This is composed of a dactylic penthemimer and iambic dimeter; as:

dēsināt | īmpāri|būs || cērtā|rĕ sūb|mōtūs | pudōr||.

(237) Iambelegus. This is the reverse of the preceding, and consists of an iambic dimeter followed by a dactylic penthemimer; as:

tū vī|nă Tor|quāto | movē || consule | pressă me o|.

(238) Galliambicus. Catullus in his Atys introduces a measure, which is called Galliambic from its use by the Galli, or priests of Cybele, and from the practice of scanning it as an iambic rhythm. It is really a sort of spurious trochaic metre, made up of a trochaic dipodia preceded and followed by a poon tertius, and

finished off by a cretic, or  $p \infty n$  quartus. As the second and fourth elements are equivalent to the first and third only in the assumed relation of the four  $p \infty ns$  (223), the verse is really asynartete. It is scanned according to the following scheme:

1.	2.	3.	4.
Pæon tertius.	Trochaic dipoda.	Pæon tertius.	Pæon quartus.
∪ ∪ <u>′</u> ∪	1 - 0	0040	<b>Ú</b>
_		υυ	<u> </u>
super alta	vectus Attis	celeri ra te	e maria
dea magna	dea Cybelle		
itaque ut do	mum Cybelles	tetigere	lassulæ
lævumque	pecoris hostem	stimulans i	ta loquitur.

- (239) The Greeks, from whom the Romans derived most of their metres, made great use also of the Antispastic rhythm,  $\circ | \circ (Gr. Gr. art. 672, sqq.)$ , which is not used by the Latin poets. They also counted by rhythms in the ratio  $\frac{4}{3}$ , which they called epitrites (êπίτριτοι). These were the reverse of the pæon, and contained three long syllables and one short; according to the place of the short syllable, the epitrite was called first, second, third or fourth. The fourth epitrite,  $---\circ$ , which was also termed the antispast of seven times (ἀντισπαστική ἐπτάσημος), or monogenes (μονογενίς), is alluded to by Cicero (de Orat. 1. 59, 251, according to the excellent emendation of the Baron von Bunau), as a rhetorical rhythm.
- (240) The subject of the Latin Comic Metres cannot be discussed without inquiries into the colloquial pronunciation of the language, which are beyond the scope of an elementary grammar.

# APPENDIX I.

### Distinctions of Words in Memorial Verses.

# (a) Differences of Quantity.

- 1. Sternitur arbor ăcer, fueris si viribus ācer. 'The maple tree is cut down, if you shall have been vigorous in strength.'
- 2.  $\overline{A}$  nus pars hominis, sed femina fit  $\overline{a}$  nus annis. 'The anus is a part of a man, but a woman becomes  $\overline{a}$ nus, "old," by years.'
- 3. Mel vaga condit  $\check{a}pis$ ; deus est Ægyptius  $\bar{A}pis$ . 'The roving bee stores honey; Apis is an Egyptian god.'
- 4. Est hăra porcorum brevis, at non āra deorum. 'The hăra or stye of pigs has short ă; not so the āra or altar of gods.'
  - 5. Dum sinet hora cănes; effeto corpore cānes; Grandævique cănis candescunt tergora cānis. While time permits, you will sing; your body being
- 'While time permits, you will sing; your body being exhausted you are grey; and the skin of the aged god is white with grey hairs.'
- 6. Silva vetus cecidit, ferro quam nemo cecidit. An old wood fell, which no one felled with an axe.
- 7. Fert ancilla colum, penetrat res humida colum. 'A maid-servant carries a distaff, liquid matter penetrates a strainer.'
- 8. Cōmas virgineas, hasta recurva, cŏmas. 'Mayest thou, O bent spear, part (i. e. put in order) the

- virgin's hair' (referring to the hasta cælibāris: Ovid, Fasti, 11. 560). Cōmo is contracted from co-ĕmo (90, 1).
- 9. Si vis esse comes mihi, mores indue comes. 'If you would be a companion to me, put on affable manners.'
- 10. Lucrandi *cupĭdo* damno est sua sæpe *cupīdo*. 'His own *desire* is often detrimental to one *desirous* of gain.'
- 11. Oblitus decoris violat præcepta decoris. 'He who is forgetful of honour violates the laws of beauty.'
- 12. Dēdēre cor divis par est qui tanta dēdēre. 'It is right to give up our heart to the gods who have given us so much.'
- 13. Carmina dicantur, Domino dum templa dicantur. 'Let poems be recited, while temples are dedicated to the Lord.'
- 14. Solvere diffidit, nodum qui diffidit ense. 'He has no confidence in untying the knot, who has cut it with his sword.'
- 15. Sanus ĕdit carnem; carmen doctissimus ēdit.

  'A healthy man eats meat; a most learned man gives out, i. e. publishes a poem.'
- 16. Edücat hic catulos, ut eos edücat in apros. 'This man trains whelps, that he may lead them out against wild boars.'
- 17. Si tibi non est æs, ĕs inops, et pinguia non ēs. 'If you have not money, you are poor, and do not eat dainties.'
- 18. Nos precor excūsā, male sit si excūsă moneta. 'Prithee excuse us, if the money is badly coined.'
- 19. Fābūla sermonis, fābūla est faba parvula dicta. 'A fable belongs to language, but a little bean is called fābula.'

- 20. Fīdž sed ante vidē; qui fīdit, nec bene vīdit, Fallitur. Ergo vidē, ne capiare fīde.
- 'Trust, but look first; he who trusts and has not well considered, is deceived. Therefore consider, lest you be inveigled by confidence.'
- 21. Fallit sæpe frětum placido nimis æquore frētum. 'The sea often deceives one who relies too much on its smooth surface.'
- 22. Fūgēre hi; fūgēre est melius, ne fuste fūgēre. 'These have run away; it is better to run away, lest you be driven away with a stick.'
- 23. Per quod quis peccat, per *idem* mox plectitur *idem*. 'By what a man sins, by the same thing the same man is soon punished.'
- 24. Difficilis *lăbor* est, cujus sub pondere *lābor*. 'It is a difficult *labour*, under the weight of which *I* am sinking.'
  - 25. Lævus erit, cui dextra manus non præbeat usum; Lēvis adhuc puer est: lĕvis autem lingua puellæ.
- 'A man is left-handed, if his right hand is unserviceable; the boy is still smooth; but the tongue of the girl is light.'
- 26. Ut *lepores* canibus, sunt omnia capta *lepore*. 'As *hares* are caught by dogs, so all things are captivated by *beauty*.' (See Lucret. 1. 14. v. 1258).
- 27. Tange *lyram* digitis, dum *līram* vomere *duco*. Touch the *lyre* with your fingers, while I draw a furrow with the plough.
  - 28. Cernis triste mălum, fractum jam turbine mālum? Māla măli mālo meruit măla maxima mundo. Mālo ego māla meâ bona quam măla frangere mālā.
- 'Do you see this sad disaster,—the mast (mālus) already broken by the whirlwind?'

'The jaw-bone of a bad man with an apple (mālum) earned the greatest evils for the world.'

'I would rather break with my jaw good apples

than bad.'

- 29. Māně domi, mi Fusce, mănē, visure sodales. Remain at home in the morning, my dear Fuscus, being about to see friends.
- 30. Matrona augusta est mulier, sed Matrona flumen. 'A Matron is a dignified lady, but the Marne is a river.'
- 31. Es præclarus homo, misëris si misëris aurum. 'You are a noble man, if you shall have sent gold to the poor.'
- 32. Nītěre, parve puer, cupies quicunque nitēre. 'Strive, little boy, whoever you are that desire to shine.'
- 33. Sit nota nota: notus ventus, sed notus amicus. Let the mark be known; the south is a wind, but a friend is known.
- 34. Oblita quæ fuco rubet, est oblita decoris. 'She who is red from being daubed with paint is forgetful of beauty.'
- 35. Occidit latro, verum sol occidit almus. 'The robber murders, but the balmy sun sets.'
- 36. Oppërior Fabium, qui longo operītur amictu. 'I am waiting for Fabius, who is clad in a long robe.'
- 37. Os (oris) mandat, sed os (ossis) manditur ore. 'The mouth commands, but a bone is eaten with the mouth.'
- 38. Quæque pălus stagnat, fixus stat pālus acutus. Every marsh is stagnant; the sharp stake stands firm.
- 39. Uxoris părëre et pārëre, părāre mariti est. 'It is the part of the wife to bear children and obey; of the husband to provide.'

- 40. Gaudet uterque părens, si filius est bene pārens. 'Both parents rejoice, if the boy is properly obedient.'
- 41. Pendere vult justus, sed non pendere malignus. 'The honest man wishes to pay, but the scoundrel wishes not to be hanged.'
- 42. Perfidus absque fide est; contra est perfidus amicus. 'The perfidious is without faith; on the contrary the friend is thoroughly trusty.'
- 43. Lude pilá: pīlum torquetur: pīla columna est. 'Play at ball: the javelin is hurled: the pillar is a column.'
- 44. Pro reti et regione plăga est, pro verbere plāga. 'Plăga means a net or a region: plāga is a blow.'
- 45. Sunt cives urbis populus, est populus arbor. 'The inhabitants of a city are a people: the popular is a tree.'
- 46. Si vitare potes, ne plurima pocula potes. 'If you can avoid it, drink not very many cups.'
- 47. Haud mihi profecta est bene res ex urbe profecto. 'The business did not turn out well for me having departed from the city.'
- 48. Quæ probus ille *rĕfert*, nostrâ cognoscere *rēfert*. 'It is *for our interest* to know what that good man *is telling us*.'
- 49. Decretum relegat, qui sontem ex urbe relegat. Let him, who is banishing the guilty from the city, read again his decree.
  - 50. Si qua sēdē sēdēs, atque est tibi commoda sēdes, Illa sēdē sēdē, nec sīdē ubi sīdere non est.
- 'If you are sitting on any seat, and your seat is convenient, remain sitting on that seat, and do not settle, where it is not possible to settle.'
  - 51. Est in veste sinus, sinus vas lactis habetur.

- 'The bosom-folds are in the dress; the sīnus is a bowl of milk.'
- 52. Tam cito suffocat laqueus, quam suffocat ignis. 'The halter strangles as quickly as the fire suffocates.'
- 53. Tribula grana terunt; tribuli nascuntur in agris. 'Threshing machines bruise grain: caltrops grow in the fields.'
- 54. Ne sit  $\tilde{u}ti$  censes; opus est melioribus  $\tilde{u}ti$ . Let it not be as you determine; it is necessary to use better plans.
- 55. Si transire vělis maris undas, utere vēlis. 'If you wish to cross the waves of the sea, make use of sails.'
- 56. Merx nummis vēnit; věnit huc aliunde profectus. 'Merchandise is sold for money; he comes hither, having started from some other place.'
- 57. Vēnimus hesternâ, ast hodiernâ luce vinīmus. 'We came yesterday, but we are coming to-day.'
- 58. Nil prosunt vires, ni probitate vires. 'Strength is of no avail, unless you are strong in honesty.'

### (b) Differences of Form or Gender.

- 59. Cantat acanthis avis, sed floret acanthus in agris. 'The goldfinch is a bird which sings; but the acanthus blooms in the fields.'
- 60. Qui fert arma humeris, armo dux fertur equino. 'The general, who carries arms on his shoulders, is carried on the horse's back.'
- 61. Vexat asilus equos; miseros excepit asylum. 'The gad-fly torments horses: the sanctuary is wont to receive the wretched.'
- 62. Qui sculpit celat; qui servat condita celat. 'He who engraves, carves; he who keeps secrets, conceals.'

- 63. How cassis galea est; hi casses retia signant. 'This cassis (f.) is a helmet: these casses (m.) mean nets.'
- 64. Vēdo facit cessi; cecidi, cădo; cœdo, cecidi. 'Cedo, I yield, makes cessi; cedo, I fall, cecidi; cœdo, I cut, cecidi.'
- 65. Clava ferit, clavus firmat, clavisque recludit. 'The club strikes, the nail fastens, and the key opens.'
- 66. Consule doctores, si tu tibi consulis ipsi. 'Consult your teachers, if you provide for your interests.' This is only a difference of construction.
- 67. Fuste dölat furem, döluit qui dölia perdens. 'He beats the thief with a stick, who grieved at losing his wine-jars.'
- 68. Hœc ficus (ficûs vel ficû) est fructus et arbor;
  Hic ficus (ficû) malus est in corpore morbus.

  'This fig (f.) is a fruit and a tree; this ficus (m.) or tumour is a bad disease in the body.'
- 69. Frontem dic capitis, frondem dic arboris esse. 'Say that frons, frontis, "a brow," belongs to the head; but frons, frondis, "a bough," to a tree.'
- 70. Non *licet* asse mihi, qui me non asse *licetur*. 'He is not valued by me at a penny, who does not value me at a penny.'
- 71. Merx vēnit; mercesque vēnit, quæsita labore. 'Merchandise is sold; and wages come being gained by labour.'
- 72. Prunus habet prunum, prunam ignis, et arva pruinam. 'The plum-tree has the plum, the fire a hot-coal, and the fields the hoar-frost.'
- 73. Spondet vas (vădis), at vas (vāsis) continet escam. 'The surety (m.) promises, but the vessel (n.) contains food.'

- (c) Synonyms, or different Words with similar Meanings.
- 74. Est cutis in carne, est detracta e corpore pellis. 
  <sup>6</sup> Cutis is the skin attached to the flesh, pellis is the hide stript off the body. 
  <sup>7</sup>
- 75. Sanguis inest venis, cruor est e corpore fusus. Blood is in the veins; gore is shed from the body.
  - 76. Armus brutorum est, humerus ratione fruentum; Tergum est amborum; belua tergus habet.

'The armus is the shoulder of brutes, the humerus, that of rational beings: the tergum is the hinder part of any thing; a beast has tergus (tergoris), a hide.'

The first statement is proved by Ovid, Metam. x. 699, where it is said of Hippomenes turned into a lion: ex humeris armi fiunt. But the distinction is not always observed. In the case of a horse, the armi were not only the withers, but the flanks (Virg. En. vi. 882). Tergum is only the hinder part, or the part turned away; whence such phrases as terga vertere, dare, 'to turn one's back to the enemy, to run away;' and a tergo, post tergum, 'behind.' The back, considered as part of the body, is dorsum.

- 77. Ungula conculcat; lacerat, tenet, arripit unquis. 'The hoof tramples; the nail, claw, or talon tears, holds, seizes.'
- 78. Pistor habet furnum, fornace hypocausta calescunt. 'The baker has an oven, the stove-rooms of baths are warmed by furnaces.'
- 79. Fructus arboribus, fruges nascuntur in agris. 'Fruits grow on trees, corn in the fields.' This is only true of fructus as opposed to fruges, for both of them may be used as general designations of produce—id quo fruimur.
  - 80. Ales hirundo canit : nat hirūdo ; vernat arundo.

- 'The swallow is a bird which twitters; the leech swims; the reed grows green.'
- 81. Alga venit pelago, sed nascitur ulva palude. 'The sea-weed comes from the sea, but the sedge grows in the marsh.'
- 82. Prora prior, puppis pars ultima, at ima carīna. 'The prow is the front part of a ship, the stern the hind part, and the keel the lowest part.'
- 83. Cōminus ense feris, jactâ cadis ēminus hastâ. 'You strike close at hand (cum manu) with a sword; you fall by a spear thrown from a distance (e manu).'
  - 84. Forfice sartores; tonsores forpice gaudent; At faber ignitum forcipe prendit opus.
- 'Tailors delight in scissors, barbers in curling-irons; but the smith takes the ignited iron with a pair of tongs.'
- 85. Vallamus proprie castrum, sepimus ovile. 'We properly intrench a camp, but hedge-in a sheep-fold.'
  - 86. Consortes fortuna eadem; socios labor idem; Sed caros faciunt schola, ludus, mensa sodales.
- 'The same fortune makes partners; the same toil, comrades; but the school, the game, the table, make dear associates.'
  - 87. Vir comis multos comites sibi jungit eundo; Unum collegas efficit officium.
- 'A courteous man joins to himself many companions (comes from cum eo) in his journey; a common occupation makes colleagues.'
- 88. Dele quod scriptum est, sed flammam exstingue lucernæ. 'Blot out what is written, but quenck the flame of the lamp.'
- 89. Quod non est simulo, dissimuloque quod est. 'I feign what is not, and conceal falsely what is.'

- 90. Vas caput, at nummos tantum præs præstat amice. 'A bail kindly makes good the person, but a surety money only.'
- 91. Hasta teres dici, sphæra rotunda potest. 'A spear may be called rounded, but a sphere round.' But the former epithet may also be applied to a sphere; for Horace says, with this reference: in se ipso totus teres atque rotundus (Serm. 11. 7, 86). For the use of teres, see N. Crat. §. 178.
- 92. Lingua cibum gustat, qui bene cunque sapit. 'The tongue tastes any food, which has a good savour.'
- 93. Sunt ætate senes, veteres vixere priores. 'Men are old in age; the ancients lived before us.'
- 94. Ne sit securus, qui non est tutus ab hoste. Let him not be secure (i. e. free from care; se-curus = sine curá), who is not safe from the enemy.'
- 95. Tarquinius Patribus Conscriptos addere jussit. 'Tarquin directed the addition of Conscripti or Plebeian knights to the Patres or Patricians,' i.e. the heads of the original burgesses of Rome. Accordingly the address Patres, Conscripti, must be rendered not, 'Conscript Fathers,' but, 'Fathers and Conscripts,' or 'Patricians and elected Senators:' the et being omitted as in Populus Romanus, Quirites, 'Burgesses of Ramnian and Sabine origin;' and such phrases as sarta, tecta, 'sound in wall and roof,' &c. (above, 112, Obs. 1).
- 96. Poplicolam populus non plebs agrestis amabat. 'Poplicola was a favourite with the populus or old burgesses of Rome, and not with the plebs or citizens of inferior franchise, who were imported from the country' (Niebuhr, 1. p. 530, n. 1172).
  - 97. Deliciæ procĕrum, procēro corpore, Kæso Militiæ atque domi clarus et amplus erat.

- ' Kæso, the delight of the nobles, a man of tall stature, was illustrious and distinguished both in foreign service and at home.' The oldest names of the patricians or patres seem to have been celeres or 'horsemen' (taméβοται), and proceres or 'wooers.' The latter word, formed, like celeres, from the original designation proci patricii, 'patrician suiters (Fest. p. 249, ed. Müller), denotes that they had the right of intermarriage (jus connubii), which was denied to all but peers of the original burgesses. Procerus comes from procello, as obs-curus from oc-culo, and denotes remarkable growth. Clarus and amplus are the most usual terms for personal distinction in the old Roman state: the former, which is connected with the same root as κλί-ος, κλύω, in-clytus, gloria (compare such phrases as clare dixit, 'he spoke aloud, Hor. 1. Epist. xvi. 59), signifies 'much spoken about; and vir clarissimus amounts to our phrase 'most illustrious; amplus from amb- (111), as circulus from circum, denotes size or circumference—that which fills the eyes—but is used as all but a synonym for clarus; thus we have such phrases as: maxima cum gratiá et gloriá ad summam amplitudinem pervenit (Cic. Brut. 81, 281); is mihi videtur amplissimus, qui sua virtute in altiorem locum pervenit (Cic. Rosc. Am. 30); majestas est amplitudo ac dignitas civitatis (Cic. de Orat. 11. 39, 164); auctoritas et amplitudo hominum (Cic. Rosc. Am. 1); domus clari hominis is described às ampla domus (Cic. de Offic. 1. 39, 139); and amplus and gloriosus are used as parallel predicates (Liv. xx viii. 42).
- 98. Active perdo, passive amittere possum. Although both perdo and amitto signify 'I lose,' the former may also mean 'I destroy.' According to the etymology, a-mitto is 'I send away,' 'I part with;' but per-do is 'I cause to go through and out of,' in which sense it is the active of per-eo, 'I go through and out

- of,' just as inter-ficio and inter-imo, 'I make or take from the midst of,' are opposed to inter-eo, 'I go from between or away.'
- 99. Ultro polliceor, promitto sæpe rogatus. Polliceor is 'I make a free offer,' generally of good things; promitto, 'I promise what may be asked or expected from me,' whether good or evil.
- 100. Quid, nisi mens infensa, infestam torqueat hastam? 'What except an angry mind could hurl the hostile spear? These words are constantly confused by modern Latinists. If we compare in-fensus with of-fensus, from ob-fendo, we shall see that the former is connected with in-fendo, and implies an unfriendly or angry disposition of the mind; so that it corresponds to inimicus, iratus. If, on the other hand, we compare in-festus with mani-festus and fest-ino, we shall see that it comes from in-fero, and implies some outward opposition and attack; so that it is a synonym of adversus, hostilis. This will be seen in a passage of Livy, where the two words occur together (11. 6): concitat calcaribus equum atque in ipsum infestus consulem dirigit . . . Adeoque Infensis animis concurrerunt, ut ... duabus hærentes hastis moribundi ex equis lapsi sint, 'he spurs his horse and urges him straight against (full tilt against) the consul himself; and they met with such angry minds that they fell dying from their horses, sticking to the two spears implanted in them.'
- 101. Collige mater-iam; patr-iam tu, dilige, civis. 'Collect materials; do you, O citizen, love your native land.' Although mater-ia (of which materia-is=materies is an extension; above, 28, Obs.) is derived from mater, 'a mother,' just in the same way as patr-ia comes from pater, the above line shows that their meaning is absolutely different; for while materia denotes the 'mother-stuff' or 'materials' of which any thing is composed, so that the work seems to proceed or be

born from it, patr-ia is the country to which we belong by inheritance, and which is our common parent. The same example shows the difference of two compounds of lego 'I cull, pick up or gather.' Col-ligo expresses the result of gathering, namely, collection; di-ligo selection in gathering, choice, preference, love. Similarly, emo, 'I take for myself,' 'I buy,' becomes in a secondary form amo, 'I love.' The compound intel-ligo, 'I discriminate,' i. e. 'I understand,' is very different from inter-imo, 'I take from the midst,' i. e. 'I destroy.' The next example gives another use of lego.

102. Sit pietas coluisse Deum, coluisse parentes; Relligio populum obstringit formidine cali.

'Let piety or duty be defined as an affectionate reverence for God and our parents; religious scruples bind the popular mind with a fear of heaven.' The ancients placed our duty to God and to our parents on the same or a similar footing (see Pindar, Pyth. vi. 19, and the note); and piare is to perform any act of duty or worship; hence the epithet pius is constantly applied to Æneas, because he carried his father out of danger on his shoulders (senior parens pia sarcina nati, Övid, Heroid. vii. 107). But relligio involves a much more complicated notion. It is not derived from re-ligare, 'to bind back,' according to the usual notion, but from re-ligere, 'to make careful gathering,' so that re-ligens might be a synonym of di-ligens, and an opposite of neg-ligens. Similarly, op-tio comes, not from op-tare, but from optum, as lec-tio from lec-tum; and rebellio comes. not from rebell-are, but from rebellis. Thus relligio, according to its primary meaning, is 'perpetually thoughtful care; dwelling upon a subject, and continually recurring to it; and in its application it is: (1) religious worship;' (2) 'religious scruple,' especially in the plural; (3) by substituting the cause for the effect, it is 'guilt causing religious scruple or fear,' or 'the divine curse and consequent remorse or oppression of the conscience caused by a sense of violated religious scruples: in the second and third sense it is used in a curious connexion with the words violare and expiare in three passages of Cicero which have never been compared by any lexicographer or commentator. Cic. Philipp. 1. 6, 13: 'an me censetis, P.C., decreturum fuisse, ut parentalia cum supplicationibus miscerentur, ut inexpiabiles religiones (curses) in rempublicam inducerentur?; 'Tuscul. Disput. 1. 12, 27: 'cærimoniis sepulcrorum, quas nec tantâ curâ coluissent, nec violatas tam inexpiabili religione (curse) sanxissent; ad Atticum 1. 17, 16: 'quare et illa, quæ violata, expiabuntur; et hæc nostra, quæ sunt sanctissime conservata, suam religionem (scrupulous observance) obtinebunt.'

103. Nõsse potes populum, sed scis quid agatur in urbe; Sontibus ignoscis; notos agnoscis amicos; Et cognoscis eum, qui non tibi cognitus esset.

Novi means 'I know' or 'am acquainted with' a person or thing: but scio means, 'I know' or 'have knowledge of' a reality or fact; thus we have in the same passage of Livy, 1.54: quod utriusque populi vires nosset, sciretque invisam profecto superbiam regiam civibus esse, 'because he was acquainted with the strength of both the Romans and the Gabinians, and knew for a fact that the royal tyranny was hateful to the citizens.' Ignosco is, 'I take no knowledge, overlook, pardon;' agnosco is, 'I recognize or acknowledge' what I knew before; and cognosco, 'I learn, or become acquainted with the unknown.'

104. Credulus exspectas: fidos præstolor amicos. 'You, being credulous, are expecting, or looking out, in hope and desire; I am waiting for friends on whom I can rely.' Exspecto merely denotes definite or indefinite hope or expectation; as in the rusticus exspectat of Horace; but præstolor presumes an appointment.

105. Dulcia delectant gustantem; suavia odore;

Jucunda exhilarant animum; sed grata probantur A gratis; quæ visa placent loca, amæna vocamus. Although both dulcis and suavis are used generally to signify 'sweet,' the former more properly denotes that which is agreeable to the palate (γλυκύς); the latter that which is pleasant to the smell (ήδύς); thus we have: maturá dulcior uvá, μέλιτος γλυκίων; but suave olens, ήδύοσμος. Jūcundus is properly a participle, for juviscundus, and is applied to that:—quod juvat et cordi est, that which causes mental pleasure and satisfaction. Gratus is that which is welcome or acceptable. And amænus is that which charms the sight with a sense of cheerfulness and beauty.

106. Dividimus muros et mænia pandimus urbis. 'We make a breech in the walls, and disclose the collective buildings of the city' (see Niebuhr, H. R. 11. note 80).

107. Omnibus in rebus remur ratione sagaci;
Rem petit unusquisque; reos res-publica punit;
Irrita ne facias, rationem ponere par est.

'In all things we think by means of sagacious reason. Every one seeks for wealth; the re-public or commonwealth punishes the culprits. That you may not make things of no avail, it is proper to send in an account.' There are no words in the Latin which are so much or so vaguely used as res and ratio, which are connected by the verb re-or, ('I think,' i. e. propose a res to my mind,) derived from res, and furnishing a derivation for rătio from its participle ră-tus. The memorial lines give some of the principal distinctions of meaning; but the following definition extends to every use of the two words: res = ra-is is probably for hra-is, from hir the old Latin for 'a hand' (Varro, L. IV. 26); and therefore equivalent to the Greek  $\chi \rho \epsilon i \sigma$ ,  $\chi \rho \epsilon i \sigma$ ,  $\chi \rho \rho i \mu \sigma$ ,

from χείρ; compare læna with χλαῖνα, luridus with χλωρός, &c. Consequently res is that which is handled. and means whatever is or may be an object of thought. But ratio is a derivative in -tio from the verb reor, and therefore, like other derivatives of the same kind (above, 114), implies the action of the verb, and may be defined as the mode or act of thinking. whereas res or res familiaris is 'property,' ratio is the account kept; whereas res or respublica is the state objectively, ratio is the mode of governing, and in general if res is the outer world (as in: natura rerum. &c.), ratio is the inner reason, which deals with its theory. The participle ratus means 'determined;' whence irritus means 'made of no effect.' And reus means a person accused or impeached, because res, in a legal sense, means the object of controversy, the thing or matter under dispute. In Cicero (de Orat. 11. 15), rerum ratio or 'history,' as the arrangement of facts (§ 63), is opposed to verborum ratio or 'style,' as the arrangement of words (6 64).

108. Planitiem dicas regionis et æquora campi;

Æquora pontus habet; ponto licet esse profundo;
Et mare proruptum pelago premit arva sonanti.

'You may speak of the level surface of a region and of the wide expanse of a field; the main sea has an expanse; it may also be deep; and the food rushing forth covers the lands with a roaring sheet of water.' Planities means the absence of hills, and therefore is applicable only to the land; expansion, and is therefore applicable either to land or sea; pontus properly refers to the depth of the sea; mare to the mass of water, as opposed to dry land; and pelagus to the extended sheet of water as opposed to the surface of the land.

# APPENDIX II.

# Abbreviations.

# (a) Promomens.

A. Aulus.	Ρ.	Publius.
C. or G. Caius or Gaius.	Q.	Quintus.
Cn. Cneius.	Ser.	Servius.
D. Decimus.	Sex.	Sextus.
K. Kæso.	Sp.	Spurius.
L. Lucius.	T.	Titus.
M. Marcus.	Tı.	Tiberius.
M'. Manius.		

Women's names are expressed by inverted characters; as: O. Caia.

## (b) Titles.

ÆD. CUR. Ædilis Curulis.

Cos. Consul.—Coss. Consules v. Consulibus.

Cos. Des. Consul designatus.

D. Divus.

III VIRI A.A.A.F.F. Triumviri auro, argento, ære, flando, feriundo.

III VIR R.C. Triumvir reipublicæ constituendæ.

IMP. Imperator.

P.C. Patres, Conscripti.

P.M. Pontifex Maximus.

PRC. Proconsul.

S.P.Q.R. Senatus Populusque Romanus. Tr. Pl. Tribunus Plebis.

X.V. Decemvir.

XV.V.S.F. Quindecemviri sacris faciundis.

## (c) Sepulcral.

F.C. Faciundum curavit.

H.C.E. Hic conditus est.

H.S.E. Hic situs est.

OB. Obiit.

P.C. Ponendum curavit.

V. Vixit.

#### (d) Miscellaneous.

A. Absolvo.—C. Condemno.

N.L. Non liquet.

A.P. Antiquam legem probo. V.R. Uti rogas.

(These are the forms of voting on trials, laws and elections).

A.U.C. Anno Urbis Conditæ.

D.D. Dono dedit.

D.D. Dederunt.

D.D.D. Dat, dicat, dedicat.

D.M. Dis manibus.

D.O.M. Deo Optimo Maximo.

F. Filius.

F.F.F. Felix, faustum, fortunatum.

L. Libertas.

M.P. Mille Passuum.

N. Nepos.

S.C. Senatus Consultum.

S.P.D. Salutem plurimam dicit.

S.T.E.Q.V.B.E.E.Q.V. Si tu exercitusque valetis, bene est, ego quoque valeo. Tr. pot. Tribunicia Potestate.

# (e) Modern Latin.

A.C. or A.D. Anno Christo or Anno Domini.

a.C.n. p.C.n. ante christum natum.

C.P.P.C. Collatis pecuniis ponendum curaverunt.

Cet. Cetera.

Cf. Confer or Conferatur.

Coll. Collato or Collatis.

Cod. Codd. Codex, Codices.

Del. Dele or Deleatur.

Ed. Edd. Editio, Editiones.

e.g. exempli gratiâ.

Etc. or &c. Et cetera.

h.e. hoc est.

J.C. Jesus Christus.

Ictus. Juris consultus.

ibid. ibidem; id. idem.

i.e. id est.—i.q. idem quod.

L. or Lib. Liber.

L.B. Lectori benevolo

l.c. loco citato.—l.l. loco laudato.

leg. lege.

L.S. locus sigilli.

MSS. Manuscripti.

N.B. nota bene.

N.T. Novum Testamentum.

Obs. Observa.

P.S. Postscriptum.

sc. scilicet.

sq. and sqq., sequenti, and sequentibus.

vid. vide.

viz. videlicet.

V. cel. Vir celeberrimus.

V. cl. Vir clarissimus.

V.D.M. verbi divini minister.

V.T. Vetus Testamentum.

# (f) Academical or Scholastic.

A.B. or AA.B. Artium Baccalaureus.

A.M. or AA.M. Artium Magister.

D. Doctor.

J.U.D. Juris utriusque Doctor.

LL.B. Legum Baccalaureus.

LL.D. M.B. Legum Doctor.

Medicinæ Baccalaureus.

M.D. Medicinæ Doctor. Mus. D. Musicæ Doctor.

S.T.B. Sanctæ Theologiæ Baccalaureus.

Sanctæ Theologiæ Professor: which is S.T.P. the same as:

Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor. S.T.D.

Max. ma. mi. min. are affixed to the names of boys in Classical Schools to denote maximus natu, major natu, &c.

The University titles require a few words of explanation. It was always supposed that the University gave two kinds of Degrees or certificates of proficiencyin Arts and in the Faculties. The inferior or preparatory degree in each department was that of Bachelor, baccalaureus, a barbarous title derived from the French bas Chevalier, which primarily denoted a Knight Bachelor, one who sat at the same table with the Bannerets. but, being of inferior rank, was mis arrière et plus bas assis; hence, it came to denote the unfinished apprentice, the unmarried man, and the demi-graduate. The complete degree in Arts was that of Magister or "Master;" in the Faculties, that of Doctor or "Teacher;" two titles equivalent to one another, and to the common designation of Professor or claimant of complete knowledge. The Arts, which were supposed to require seven years' study, and which were seven in number, are enumerated in the following lines:

Gram. [grammatica] loquitur; Dia. [dialectica] vera docet; Rhet. [rhetorica] verba colorat;

Mus. [musica] canit; Ar. [arithmetica] numerat; G. [geometria] ponderat; As. [astronomia] colit astra.

The arts, enumerated in the first line, were called the *Trivium*; those in the second the *Quadrivium*; it is remarkable, however, that the first of the latter four, *Music*, is a kind of faculty, which has Bachelors and Doctors of its own. The regular faculties are three: *Divinity*, *Law*, and *Medicine*, the first and highest of which is supposed to include all the arts.

# APPENDIX III.

#### General Information.

#### (a) Names of Persons.

THE Roman names of men were generally three. (1) the Prænomen or designation of the individual, which was one of those mentioned above, Appendix II. (a); (2) the Nomen or name of the gens or clan, which properly was an adjective in -ius, as Cornelius, Tullius; (3) the Cognomen or name of the familia or branch of the clan, to which the individual belonged, as Scipio, Cicero, and this was generally the characteristic designation of the person, quality, or pursuits of some ancestor, so that it corresponded to our surname. In common intercourse, the nomen or gentile name was taken for granted, and C. Cæsar would be a sufficient designation of Caius Julius Casar. The Pranomen alone was used in familiar addresses. And women were known by a feminine form of the gentile name; thus Cornelia, the mother of the Gracchi, was called by the gentile name of her father P. Scipio. Besides the three regular names, two others are occasionally found,—the Agnomen or surname of distinction, and the adoptive Agnomen, which referred to the family left by the party adopted; thus P. Cornelius Scipio was called Africanus, from his conquest of Carthage, and the Emperor Augustus, who was originally C. Octavius. when adopted by C. Julius Casar, was called C. Julius Cæsar Octavianus, to which the Agnomen of Augustus was subsequently added.

#### (b) Epistolary Forms.

A Latin epistle always begins with the address and greeting, and, if it has a date, this is appended, together with any supplementary expressions of friendship, at the end of the letter. Thus Cic. ad Div. IV. 12, begins: Ser. Sulpicius M. Ciceroni S. D., and ends: Vale. D. pr. Kal. Jun. Athenis, i. e. datum pridie Kalendas Junias: and sometimes the year is added, as (ad Attic. I. 18): Vale. XI. Kal. Febr. Q. Metello, L. Afranio coss. Common endings are: cura ut valeas; and: me velim, ut facis, diligas; and the like.

# (c) The Seven Hills of Rome, the Tribes, and the Kings.

(1) The three hills nearest to the river, and the four more inland, will be remembered by the following lines, which enumerate the two sets of hills by their directions up the river:

Collis Aventini, dein celsa Palatia fulgent, Transque Forum surgit Capitoli immobile saxum; Cœlius, Esquiliæ, dictusque a Vimine collis, Ultimaque ad Campum tendunt juga longa Quirini.

(2) The three original tribes, the *Tities* or *Sabines*, who occupied the *Quirinalis* and *Capitolium*, the *Ramnes* or *Romans*, who were settled on the *Palatinus*, and the *Luceres* or *Latins*, who held the *Cælius*, may be remembered by a line of Propertius:

Hinc Tities, Ramnesque viri, Luceresque coloni.

(3) The seven kings of Rome were:
Romulus ante omnes: post hunc Numa, Tullus et Ancus;
Tarquinius Priscus, dein Servius atque Superbus.

## (d) Mythology.

(1) The twelve principal gods were, according to Ennius:

Vesta, Minerva, Ceres, Juno, Diana, Venus, Mars, Mercurius, Jovi', Neptunus, Vulcanus, Apollo.

- (2) The nine *Pierides* or Muses were: Calliope, Urania, Euterpe, Polyhymnia, Clio, Terpsichore, atque Erato, cum Melpomeneque Thalia.
- (3) Thalia was also counted one of the Graces; the other two being  $Agl\check{a}ia$  and  $Euphros\check{y}n\bar{e}$ .
- (4) The three Parcx or Fates were: Clotho, 'who spins the thread of life,'  $L\check{a}ch\check{e}sis$ , 'who rules our lot,' and  $Atr\check{o}pos$ , 'the unchanging destiny.' The Etruscans substituted Nursia = ne-vertia, 'the unturning,' for the last of the three, and considered her as the goddess of Fortune.

Net Clotho, Lachesis sortitur, et Atropos occat.

(5) The six rivers of Tartarus were: Styx, Acheron, Lethe, Phlegethon, Cocytus, Avernus.

#### (e) The Roman Winds.

North: Aquilo or Borĕas; North-East: Cœcĭas; East: Eurus; South-East: Vulturnus; South: Auster or Nŏtus; South-West: Afrīcus or Libs (Lĭbis); West: Favōnius or Zephÿrus; North-West: Cōrus (or Caurus), Argestes, and, in Gallia Narbonensis, Circius.

## (f) Days of the Week.

The seven days of the week were called from the

planet which ruled the first hour of each; the Latin names are preserved in French:

- 1. Sunday: Dies Solis; also Dies Dominicus or 'the Lord's day.' (Dimanche).
- 2. Monday: Dies Lunce (Lundi).
- 3. Tuesday: Dies Martis (Mardi).
- 4. Wednesday: Dies Mercurii (Mercredi).
- 5. Thursday: Dies Jovis (Jeudi).
- 6. Friday: Dies Veneris (Vendredi).
- 7. Saturday: Dies Saturni or Dies Sabbati (Samedi).

# APPENDIX IV.

# Short Specimens of Old Latinity.

# (a) Royal Laws.

Romulus; about 750 B. C.

SEI parentem puer verbesit, ast ole plorasit, puer diveis parentom sacer estod.

(Si parentem puer verberârit, ast ille ploraverit, puer Divis parentum sacer esto).

#### Numa; about 700 B.C.

Sei qui hemonem lœbesum dolo sciens mortei duit, pariceidas estod.

(Si quis hominem liberum dolo sciens morti dederit, parricida esto).

#### (b) Tribunitian Law; 493 B.C.

Sei qui aliuta faxit, ipsos Jovei sacer estod; et sei qui im, quei eo plebei scito sacer siet, ocisit, pariceidas ne estod.

(Si quis aliter fecerit, ipse Jovi sacer esto; et si quis eum, qui eo plebis scito sacer sit, occiderit, parricida ne sit).

#### (c) XII. Tables; 450 B.C.

Sei qui in jous vocatus nec it, antestamino, igitur im capito; si calvitur pedemve struit, manum endo jacito.

(Si quis in jus vocatus non it, antestare; inde eum capito; si moratur fugitve, manum injicito).

## (d) Tiburtine Inscription; about 320 B. C.

Nos animum nostrum non indoucebamus ita facta esse, propter ea quod scibamus ea vos merito nostro facere non potuisse: neque vos dignos esse quei ea faceretis, neque id vobeis neque rei poplicæ vestræ oitile esse facere.

(Nos animum nostrum non inducebamus ita facta esse, propterea quod sciebamus ea vos merito nostro facere non potuisse: neque vos dignos esse qui ea faceretis, neque id vobis neque reipublicæ vestræ utile esse facere).

# (e) Epitaph on L. Cornelius Scipio; about 260 B.C.

L. Cornelio' L. F. Scipio. Aidiles. Cosol. Cesor.

Honc oino' ploirume consentiunt Romani Duonoro' optimo' fuise viro' Luciom Scipionem. Filios Barbati Cosol Censor Aidiles hic fuet apud vos. Hec cepit Corsica' Aleria'que urbe'. Dedet tempestatebus aide' mereto.

#### (L. Cornelius L. F. Scipio Ædilis, Consul, Censor.

Hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romani Bonorum optimum fuisse virum L. Scipionem. Filius Barbati Consul, Censor, Ædilis hic fuit apud vos. Hic cepit Corsicam, Aleriamque urbem. Dedit tempestatibus ædem merito).

#### (f) The Columna Rostrata; about 260 B.C.

En eodem macistratod bene rem navebos marid consol primus ceset, socios claseisque navales primus ornavet paravetque, cumque eis navebos claseis Pœnicas omneis et maxsumas copias Cartaciniensis, præsented sumod dictatored olorom, in altod marid pucnad vicet. (In eodem magistratu bene rem navibus mari consul primus gessit, socios classesque navales primus ornavit paravitque, cumque iis navibus classes Punicas omnes et maximas copias Carthaginienses, præsente summo Dictatore illorum, in alto mari pugnâ vicit).

## (g) Silian Law; 244 B.C.

Si quis magistratus adversus hac d. m. pondera modiosque vasaque publica modica, majora minorave faxit jusseritve fieri, dolumve adduit quo ea fiant, eum quis volet magistratus multare, dum minore parti familias taxat, liceto.

(Si quis magistratus adversus hæc, dolo malo, pondera modiosque vasaque publica modica, majora minorave fecerit jusseritve fieri, dolumve adhibuerit, quo ea fiant, eum quicunque volet magistratus multare, dum minoris partis familiæ æstimet, liceto).

#### (h) Q. Ennius; about 200 B.C.

Tollitur e medio sapientia, vei geritur res, Spernitur orator bonus, horridu' miles amatur; Haud docteis dicteis certanteis, sed male dicteis, Non ex joure manu consertum, sed magi' ferro Rem repetunt, regnumque petunt, vadunt solidâ vei.

(Tollitur e medio sapientia, vi geritur res, Spernitur orator bonus, horridus miles amatur; Haud doctis dictis certantes, sed maledictis, Non ex jure manus consertum, sed magis ferro Rem repetunt, regnumque petunt, vadunt solidâ vi).

#### (i) Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus; 186 B. C.

Haice utei in conventionid exdeicatis ne minus trinum noundinum, Senatuosque sententiam utei scienteis esetis, eorum sententia ita fuit. Sei ques esent, quei advorsum ead fecisent, quam suprad scriptum est, eeis rem caputalem faciendam censuere, atque utei hoce in tabolam ahenam inceideretis.

(Hæc uti in contione edicatis, intra trinundinum, Senatus sententiam uti scientes essetis, eorum sententia ita fuit. Si qui essent, qui adversus ea fecissent, quam supra scriptum est, iis rem capitalem faciendam censuerunt, atque uti hoc in tabulam æneam incideretis).

# (k) C. Lucilius; about 148 B. C.

(1) Virtus, Albine, est pretium persolvere verum, Queis in versamur, queis vivimu' rebu', potesse: Virtus est homini, scire id, quod quæque habeat res;

Virtus scire homini rectum, utile, quid sit ho-

nestum;

Virtus, quærendæ reî finem scire modumque.

(2) O lapathe, ut jactare necessest, cognitu' cui sis!
 In quo Læliu' clamores σοφὸς ille solebat
 Edere, compellans grumias ex ordine nostros!
 O Publi! O gurges Galloni! es homo miser, inquit:

Cœnâsti in vitâ nunquam bene, quum omnia in

istâ

Consumis squillà atque acipensere cum decumano. Læliu' præclare, et recte σοφύς, illaque vere.

## APPENDIX V.

#### Classic Authors.

The best writers of Latin are called auctores classici, i. e. 'authors of the first class,' a phrase derived from the comitia centuriata, which divided the Roman people into classes according to their wealth (Aul. Gell. xix. 8). They are also subdivided, according to the old mythological arrangement, into authors of the golden and silver age respectively. The period during which the Latin language flourished in full perfection was little more than three hundred years, that is from about 200 B.C. to about 100 A.D. The Christian æra indicates the line of demarcation between the golden and silver ages of Latinity.

#### A. Golden Age.

T. Maccius Plautus (254-184 B.C.); b. at Sarsina in Umbria: 20 Comedies.

P. Terentius Afer (195-159 B.c.); b. at Carthage:

6 Comedies.

M. Terentius Varro (116-28 B.C.); b. at Rome: 3 books on Agriculture; 6 books on the Latin Language.

M. Tullius Cicero (106-43 B.C.); b. at Arpinum, in the Volscian territory: Rhetorical and Philosophical

Works; Orations; Epistles.

C. Julius Cæsar (100-44 B.c.); b. at Rome: History. T. Lucretius Carus (95-52 B.c.); b. at Rome: Philo-

sophical Poetry.

C. Valerius Catullus (87-47 B.C.); b. at Verona: Lyric

and Elegiac Poetry.

Cornelius Nepos (?-30 B.C.); b. at Verona: Lives of Cato and Atticus. The other biographies ascribed to him were written by Æmilius Probus in the reign of Theodosius.

C. Sallustius Crispus (86-34 B.C.); b. at Amiternum, in the Sabine territory: histories of the rebellion

of Catiline and the war with Jugurtha.

P. Virgilius (or rather Vergilius) Maro (70-19 B.C.); b. at Andes near Mantua, in Cisalpine Gaul: 10 books of Bucolics, 4 of Georgics, and 12 of the Æneid.

Q. Horatius Flaccus (65-8 B.C.); b. at Venusia in Apulia: 4 books of Odes, 1 book of Epodes, 2 of Satires, and 2 of Epistles in verse.

Albius Tibullus (54?-18 B.C.); b. at Pedum near

Tibur in Latium: Elegiac Poetry.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius (51?-19 B.C.); b. in Umbria: Elegiac Poetry.

Titus Livius (59-19 B.C.); b. at Padua in Cisalpine

Gaul: History.

P. Ovidius Naso (43 B.C.-18 A.D.); b. at Sulmo in the territory of the Peligni: Elegiac Poetry, and Mythology in verse.

M. Vitruvius Pollio (?): Architecture.

M. Manilius (also Manlius or Mallius) (?): Astronomy in verse.

# B. Silver Age.

T. Phædrus (?): Fables.

Velleius Paterculus (killed A.D. 31): History.

L. Julius Moderatus Columella (?): Agriculture.

A. Persius Flaccus (A. D. 38-65): 6 Satires.

C. Silius Italicus (A.D. 25-100): Epic Poetry.

L. Annæus Seneca (killed A.D. 65): Philosophy.

M. Annæus Lucanus (A. D. 38-65): Epic Poetry.

C. Plinius Secundus (A.D. 23-79): Natural History.

Valerius Maximus (?): Anecdotes.

C. Valerius Flaccus (ob. A.D. 88): Epic Poetry.

Q. Curtius Rufus (?): Life of Alexander the Great.

M. Fabius Quintilianus (ob. A.D. 88): Rhetoric.

P. Papinius Statius (ob. A.D. 95): Poetry of various kinds.

. M. Valerius Martialis (?): Epigrams.

D. Junius Juvenalis (about A.D. 95): Satires.

L. Annæus Florus (do.): History.

C. Cornelius Tacitus (cos. A.D. 97): History, Biography, and Rhetoric.

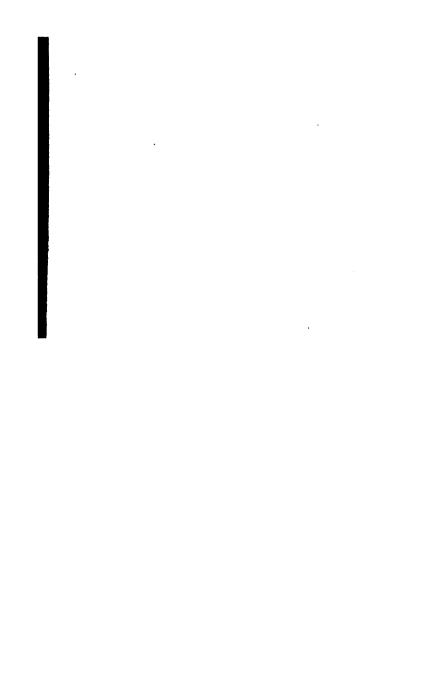
C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus (about A.D. 95): Epistles

and Oratory.

C. Suetonius Tranquillus (do.): Biographies.

Pomponius Mela (?): Geography.

THE END.



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